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The main problems confronting teachers of Mexican American children are the language and cultural barriers. Mexican American children are often limited in communication skills in both Spanish and English and hold different values and life styles than the Anglo American teacher. The "live now" attitude, which is characteristic of Latin cultures, instead of putting off gratification of desires that is part of the Protestant ethic, frustrates many teachers. Teachers, preferably from Spanish-speaking background, should be trained in both Spanish and English. Historical origin and background, cultural characteristics and basic values and aspirations of the Mexican American culture, as well as linguistics, should be included in teacher education. School counselors, should possess guidance skills to help solve Mexican American students' problems of role acceptance, self-concept, and social values. Finally, in the acculturation of the culturally disadvantaged Mexican American, a pluralistic goal is desirable which maintains the existence and identity of the minority instead of assimilationist aims. Included is a 75-page bibliography. (RH)

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Teachers And Counselors for Mexican American Children

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C. L. Ainsworth
Editor

One of the products of a feasibility study conducted at Texas Technological College and supported by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory and the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory.

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FOREWORD

This volume of reports is one of the products of a feasibility study conducted at Texas Technological College and supported by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory and the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory. The purposes of the project were (1) to clarify the nature of the problem, identify needs, evaluate alternative solutions, and design innovative teacher and counselor education programs for Mexican Americans; and (2) to study the feasibility of implementing the programs.

The results of the study strongly indicate that teacher and counselor education programs similar to those designed through this study are needed and feasible, given adequate resources. Among the by-products of this study are the following program development activities:

> A summer institute has been scheduled for Summer 1969 for elementary school principals of schools with large Mexican American populations. Sixteen stipends and the institute are being supported by the Education Professions Development Act.
>
> An EPDA program development grant has been awarded to Dr. Owen Caskey at Texas Tech for further development of a counselor program.
>
> A contract has been negotiated between Texas Tech and the Lubbock Independent School District for joint development of a bilingual program. This development is supported by the Bilingual Education Act.

The Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, working with schools, colleges, universities, and other agencies and organizations in the Southwest, is engaged in development of products to make positive changes in educational results for economically deprived children in the region of Texas and Louisiana. The Laboratory's six basic programs—Language-Bilingual Education, Mathematics Education, Multicultural Social Education, Early Childhood Education, Migrant Education, and Parental-School-Community Involvement—are all significantly related to the objectives of the Texas Tech study.

Many views expressed in these reports are the personal views of the writers and do not necessarily reflect the official views of the Laboratory.

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INTRODUCTION

There has been a growing concern for improving the educational opportunities of ethnic minority groups. In this study, an attempt has been made to develop an educational program to aid the second largest disadvantaged minority group in the United States, the Mexican Americans.

There are two main areas of concern in this study: (1) to design innovative teacher and counselor education programs to train teachers and guidance personnel to work more effectively with Mexican American students, and (2) to ascertain the feasibility of such programs. This program has been developed by an interdisciplinary group from Texas Technological College with the assistance of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory and the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory.

In an effort to provide background and direction for the programs, five study areas were defined, and subsequent research was undertaken. These areas included characteristics of Mexican Americans (including migrants), sociological implications of their culture, the role of linguistics, the guidance needs of Mexican American youth, and a study of competency patterns of teachers who work with youths of other cultures.

Chapter I includes a brief background about the Mexican Americans of the Southwestern states with a review of some of their problems. In Chapter II, sociologist Winfred Steglich has provided a profile of the Mexican Americans of the Southwest, and has raised questions concerning participants, curriculum, and the organization of the teacher education program. Chapter III is on the relatively new emphasis on linguistics and the role of linguistics in developing bilingual teachers. Pauline Jones Kayser has illustrated the relevance of this science in teaching a second language, and has provided a rationale for the inclusion of linguistic study in the preparation of teachers who deal with two languages. The guidance needs of Mexican American children are described in Chapter IV by Owen Caskey and George Smith, and are based on a study which deals with preparing counselors to work more effectively with Mexican American children in a school setting. Chapter V is concerned with incorporating the previous research, as well as original investigation by Morris S. Wallace, into a conceptualization of effective teaching for Mexican American and migrant pupils. Wallace has studied the competency pattern of teachers from New Mexico through the Rio Grande Valley in attempting to develop a flexible model of desired teaching.

This report of the study and research undertaken reflects the work of a number of persons, including much previous effort in the area. The contributions of all of the writers, participants in developmental discussions, and incidental purveyors of ideas are gratefully acknowledged. The writers accept responsibility for the inconsistencies and inadequacies in the study.

C. L. Ainsworth
Editor

Texas Technological College
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CHAPTER I

A POINT OF VIEW

If the average teacher in the average elementary school classroom in the Southwest enrolled an average group of pupils, he would face two or more children who came from Mexican American backgrounds. The average, however, seldom exists. In fact, thousands of teachers face classes in which all or almost all of the pupils are of Mexican American origin. Research and opinion both have shown that these students, with a heritage and culture so different from that of Anglo students, need teachers with special knowledges and skills.

The necessity for teachers to meet more adequately the needs of migrant Mexican American youth can be seen in many ways. School attendance reports reflect this need in showing a higher dropout rate for Mexican American students than for Anglo or Negro students. The need is revealed in writings of sociologists and educators, in reports of state departments of education, in surveys of Spanish surnames of persons in professional occupations, and in comparisons of ethnic populations on poverty rolls.

From Concern to Action

There seems to be an increasing interest in programs for bilingual education throughout the Southwest, just as there is continuing interest in compensatory education. Numerous and laudable programs are under way to begin teaching children in their primary language. These are due to the efforts of individual schools, with the cooperation of schools and institutions of higher learning, and through coordinated efforts of several agencies such as the Texas Education Agency's Texas Project for the Education of Migrant Children.

The chorus of those who would begin formal school experiences in the youngster's native tongue is growing, abetted by an increasing body of research, from the classic Philippine studies to individual and unpublished investigations – a mass of evidence that the needs of Mexican American youth are not being met with regard to education (1).

The chorus of those who would initiate bilingual educational programs at the early years is not without some dissenters, however. In individual schools with large concentrations of Mexican Americans and migrants, school personnel often hold opposing views. Some of those who make claims to the effect that, "We have been doing a pretty good job as it is and we don't know that change (to bilingual programs) would improve it," perhaps are being more supportive of their present program than research or statistics would justify.

The need felt by many concerned persons throughout the nation has resulted in multiple and diverse approaches to improve programs for those who speak English as a second language. Bilingual programs, which have been gaining in interest among individuals, lay and educational groups, and organizations and institutions, differ in their emphases, underlying philosophies, and situations.

Some concerns, however, are applicable to bilingual programs in general. These include the study of the children and their development, the curriculum that is to be taught in both

Spanish and English, the organization and materials required for teaching, and who is to teach.

Emphasis in previous studies primarily seems to have been in the areas of curriculum, materials, and organization. There has been, for example, much work with English oral language development such as carried on by the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, utilizing linguistic research and development begun by Robert Wilson at the University of California at Los Angeles.

Development of materials for teaching in Spanish also has advanced. As an example, a series of basal reading materials is being developed in Spanish by a major textbook publisher to parallel its basal series in English. Other examples of interest in materials appropriate for teaching various ethnic groups might be cited, as could the need for further development in this area.

As important as the organization and materials aspects, however, are the teachers who must operate in a bilingual teaching-learning situation and the guidance personnel who work with Mexican Americans. Many bilingual programs have capitalized upon the bilingual staff already on hand. Others have recruited Mexican American and Anglo teachers with facility in Spanish, and have provided various types of inservice education activities. However, the lack of preservice education programs to prepare teachers for serving in bilingual situations has been recognized.

Based on the recognized needs, an interdisciplinary study group was formed at Texas Technological College in 1966. Focused on the problems of bilingual education, it sought to develop a bilingual teacher education program. One focus of the program was upon the development of teachers who could operate effectively in bilingual situations; another was the development of a guidance program to prepare counselors to work with the Mexican American youth and community. It was determined that such a program should be based upon extensive study and input from a number of disciplines, including the humanities, fine arts, social sciences, psychology, and education. This report is based upon results of that study.

The report, in seeking to avoid stereotyped descriptions of Mexican Americans, draws attention to their diversity as a population. The approach is through input from the disciplines specified, with special emphasis on three major areas: sociology, linguistics, and education.

The raw data for this report were drawn from personal experiences, library study, review of current opinion and research, direct observation, and interviews with teachers currently adjudged successful by fellow teachers and administrators in working with Mexican American pupils. Although an extensive search of existing literature has been made, this material is not a comprehensive treatment of the issues even within the areas selected. The areas selected, however, are those which seem to need amplification prior to establishing guidelines for preservice teacher education and counselor education programs to develop personnel to work with Mexican American pupils.

Causes for Concern

There is a large and growing Mexican American population in the Southwest. In 1960 there were approximately 3,500,000 individuals with Spanish surnames in the Southwest, with more than 80 percent of that group in Texas and California.

Saunders has observed that the ratio of urban dwellers among Mexican Americans is increasing, and that the movement is toward the larger urban areas rather than toward smaller cities (2). In these large, urban areas, the Mexican Americans gravitate to "islands" of other Mexican Americans, held together by common bonds of language, culture, and economy (3). The clumping of these persons into "islands" results in neighborhood schools impacted with Mexican American pupils. The shortage of educated, bilingual, certified Mexican American teachers to aid in educating these children results in frustration for middle-class Anglo teachers and administrators who often are unable, because of language and cultural barriers, to meet their needs.

Mexican American spokesmen and educators are in general agreement that better employment conditions are necessary to improve the general conditions of migrant Mexican Americans, and that the key to improved employment conditions is an elevation of the educational level (4). Assuming that these observations are accurate, the existing conditions under which Mexican American children learn must be altered.

This assumption is supported by the fact that Mexican Americans as a group are poorly represented in the colleges and universities. A study of the enrollment of Spanish-speaking students in colleges of the Southwest revealed that, of 85,568 freshmen enrolled in 146 colleges, only 4,859 had Spanish surnames (5). This figure represented 5.7 percent of the freshmen, in contrast to the 11.8 percent Mexican Americans in the Southwest's general population.

The low educational achievement record of Mexican Americans often is attributed to high mobility, language difficulties, and a culture that emphasizes "living" rather than schooling (6). These reasons appear valid when considered in the light of results of research to determine the differences between Mexican American and Anglo students' attitudes toward education. A study by Demos (7) indicated that of 29 attitudes studied, Mexican American and Anglo students differed on only five. The Mexican Americans had significantly poorer attitudes toward (1) importance of an elementary education, (2) school staff's concern about students, (3) desirability of dropping out of school, (4) desirability of belonging to a gang, and (5) importance of good attendance (5). With the possible exception of the concern of the school staff, the differing attitudes could be attributed to high mobility, language difficulties, and an emphasis on "living," an attitude that reflects the Mexican American orientation to the present rather than to the future. Persons not orientated toward goals and objectives in the future no doubt would have a difficult time seeing the value in the future-oriented activities of an elementary school. Dropping out of school, poor attendance, and participation in gang activities are all manifestations of a "now" oriented existence.

Image of Mexican Americans

Prejudice has worked against the successful integration of Mexican Americans into the "Anglo" world and continues to do so. The discrimination has not always been manifested in overt disturbances, but rather, as one observer has described it, "like the push of an elbow, not a blow with the fist (8)." Even attempts to help Mexican Americans bridge cultural gaps have resulted in increased discrimination. One such project involved segregating Mexican American children from Anglo children in order to accelerate learning of basic English. The trial resulted in a greater degree of "superior attitudes" than had previously existed on the part of the Anglo children (9).

The image of Mexican Americans in certain parts of the United States is not an enviable one. In a study completed in the late 1940's, 1,700 college students in Oklahoma, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas assigned positive and negative traits to nine ethnic groups: Chinese, Filipinos, foreign-born Whites, native-born Whites, Indians, Japanese, Jews, Mexicans, and Negroes. Of the 40 traits considered, the following were most often used to describe Mexicans: (1) possess a low moral standard, (2) will steal, (3) are dirty, (4) help to keep wages low, and (5) are spreaders of disease. The Mexican group received 38.5 percent of the positive items checked and 61.5 percent of the negative items checked. Of the groups considered, Mexicans rated lowest (10). There is little evidence to support a theory that bias against Mexicans or Mexican Americans has improved.

Self-image is another important facet of Mexican American culture. Manuel pointed out that within their culture only two social classes actually exist, upper and lower, with an embryo middle-class beginning to appear. A characteristic of the upper class is that it is capable of looking into the distant past and the distant future, the lower class is "present" oriented, and the embryo middle class appears to be oriented one generation into the past and one generation into the future (11).

Problems of Mexican Americans

Problems are considered here in terms of their importance in preventing Mexican Americans from successfully taking part in modern American society. There is little doubt that the language barrier is a prime factor in integration. Manuel has emphasized its significance for Mexican Americans:

> *Language is used in thinking as well as in communicating with others . . . . There must be a mastery of language sufficient to interpret experience and to extend knowledge in ever widening circles and at progressively higher levels. This is precisely the mastery which many Spanish-speaking children fail to achieve, in either Spanish or English (12).*

The hybrid of both languages is a "bastard tongue" which is characterized by:

> *. . . .orthographic change in words, the use of the English "ing" for the Spanish participle, sentences in Spanish with numerous English words interspersed, the use of the Spanish definite article with an English noun, the use of English words with a Spanish pronunciation or a Spanish ending (13).*

Language hybridization results in children, and eventually in adults, deficient in Spanish *and* English, and who thus are incapable of accomplishing communications tasks so important in the modern world. The language barrier is only one problem, but until it is overcome, many other problems cannot be even approached.

Demos synthesized the work of many eminent observers, including Heffernan, Burma, Chang, Griffith, and Tuck, when he enumerated Mexican American problems:

(1) low level of aspiration, resulting in failure to achieve commensurate with ability
(2) lack of parental aspiration and support of educational effort
(3) excessive early school dropouts
(4) bilingualism and inadequate facility in the use of the English language
(5) biculturalism or dualism in cultural values between the Spanish-speaking and dominant group
(6) excessive peer identification and formation of gangs
(7) economic insecurity; the need to contribute to family support
(8) attitudinal differences contrary to the Anglo-American feeling toward education.

Conclusions

The following observations were considered pertinent to the selection of Mexican American teachers for Mexican American children:

(1) There exists no "typical" Mexican American. Mexican Americans are a heterogeneous group, and individuals differ in as many ways as do individuals in other groups of human beings. The traits present in effective Anglo teachers probably will have to be present in effective Mexican American teachers.
(2) Forty-one percent of Mexican Americans of the Southwest live in Texas, another 41 percent reside in California, and the majority live in large urban areas. The "typical" Mexican American farm laborer or sheepherder is an image which belongs in the past.
(3) The language barrier for Mexican Americans is not merely a lack of ability to communicate in English; many are deficient in Spanish as well. The language of Mexican Americans often is a hybrid of English and Spanish which is a liability to communication in either language.
(4) The majority of Mexican Americans have a low income and exist under substandard living conditions. More than half of the Mexican Americans in Texas, for example, earned less than $3,000 in 1959.
(5) From their cultural heritage, Mexican Americans have developed a male-dominated society. The father is the family leader; even though the mother is respected, she plays a subordinate role. The fact that male leaders are looked upon with respect and admiration could have strong implications for teacher-candidate selection.
(6) Whatever criteria are used for the selection of teacher candidates, it would seem essential for the candidates to develop an understanding and an ability to deal with the primary values of Mexican Americans:
    (a) There exists a "present oriented" philosophy among Mexican Americans which

leads them to satisfy desires now rather than plan for the future.

(b) Young Mexican Americans depend a great deal on the counsel of older members of the family or of the male community.

(c) Young Mexican Americans score consistently lower than Anglos on IQ tests, even when the tests are in Spanish.

(d) The family plays a large part in the lives of Mexican Americans and is an important motivating force.

(e) Because of the importance put upon individual worth by Mexican Americans, face-saving and ego-supporting devices are a necessity in the culture.

Rationale of the Study

This report is addressed to those concerned with the Mexican American in an educational setting and has most direct application to those who work in teacher development and to the practitioners themselves. The report's primary intent is to be of use in developing teacher education programs seriously concerned with their responsibility to all the children of all the people. The chapters which follow should provide teachers, as well as those involved in teacher development, with a broad range of ideas from which to choose as they attempt to match their programs to the realities of working with Mexican American children.

The purpose of each of the writers was to provide data from his area of expertise to assist in planning programs for development of teachers and counselors prepared to work bilingually with Mexican American pupils. The reference sources used by authors were diverse, reflecting their various interests and fields. The similarity of the tentative conclusions is noteworthy when considered within the broad range of studies reviewed.

This collection is offered in the belief that its influence may be greater than that of guidance of a particular program, and that, in fact, it has general application to those concerned with educating Mexican American youth in the Southwest.

CHAPTER II

SOCIOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR A BILINGUAL PREPARATORY PROGRAM

The Mexican Americans of the Southwest, with 4,000,000 members, are America's third largest minority group, outnumbered only by the Negro and Jewish minorities. They probably are America's fastest growing minority group; in addition to a high birth rate, migration from Mexico adds to their numbers. Like the Negroes, they are a highly visible group. Even though they are officially classified as "white," the majority – especially those in Texas – reveal in their pigmentation and in their facial features the admixture of Indian characteristics which centuries of living with the Mexican Indians added to the Spanish physical type. Furthermore, they are concentrated in one segment of the United States rather than scattered randomly throughout the population, giving them greater significance in those areas of concentration than their numerical size would otherwise suggest. In some areas they represent 85 percent of the total population rather than the two percent indicated by the gross figures (four million out of 200 million).

In spite of their numbers, rapid growth rate, high visibility, and concentration in certain parts of the country, the Mexican Americans were a virtually unknown and almost totally ignored group until recent years. Indeed, before the appearance in the mid-1950's of three books dealing with the Mexican Americans (1), there were few scholarly works dealing with this group. The purpose of this study is not to discuss the reasons for the neglect of so large and important a segment of the population on the part of American scholars. However, one might conjecture that their isolation, their orientation to Mexico (except for the Hispanics of New Mexico), and their low educational level contributed to the fact that few scholars emerged from the group to record its problems and achievements.

Until recently, scholars and writers were less concerned with Mexican Americans as individuals than they were with the problems which they presented – problems associated with poverty, migratory agricultural workers, and potential public health dangers. As a consequence, it is difficult to sort out and explain the influences which have had the greatest effect on Mexican American behavior. Only recently has the focus of scholarly research been on Mexican Americans rather than on migratory problems or poverty. Recent books by Saunders, Madsen, Rubel, Samora, Heller, and others (2) have attempted to present *La Raza* – the Mexican Americans' label for themselves – as people who can be understood only in terms of their unique cultural and social characteristics. A profile of Mexican Americans should lead to knowledge and insight that might aid in the development of an educational program to better serve their needs.

PROFILE OF MEXICAN AMERICANS

A. *Historical Background.* Mexican Americans are among the oldest residents in the

United States yet they are also among the most recent arrivals. Their settlement in the Southwest goes back to the latter part of the 16th Century, when Spanish colonists settled in villages near what is now Santa Fe, New Mexico. From this base they attempted to fan out across the whole of the northern border of "New Spain," from California to the Gulf Coast of Texas. The most recent arrivals are those who entered the United States from Mexico yesterday or today. In between these two extremes are millions of people who represent a variety of times of arrival and who range in background from the predominately Spanish "Hispanics" of New Mexico's villages to the preponderantly Mexican Indian population of South Texas. In brief, they are a heterogeneous minority group whose only real common denominator is their identification as members of *La Raza* through their language and through their culture in general (3).

Whether old or new arrivals, whether native born of native parentage or recent immigrants from Mexico, they have resisted assimilation into the Anglo American mainstream, and they have not been acculturated in any except the most superficial terms. They have successfully isolated themselves and maintained their identity, whether in the midst of such major American cities as Los Angeles and San Antonio or in remote rural villages of Northern New Mexico and Southern Colorado. Successful isolation devices include their language; religious membership, beliefs and practices; and high physical as well as cultural visibility. Furthermore, the proximity of Mexico provides them a contact with their native cultural base which is available to few American immigrant groups.

In summary, their history in the Southwest is long but diversified, resulting in a heterogeneous group whose members share a common identity of language, religion, and life-ways, as well as high physical visibility in the vast majority of cases. But even when they give up their language, religion, and life-ways in favor of Anglo American ways, it seems that it is more difficult for Mexican Americans to lose themselves in the American melting pot than it has been for most other ethnic groups in the United States.

B. *Demographic Characteristics.* The demographic characteristics of a group are highly interrelated. A trained demographer can look at the age structure of a group, for example, and predict with fair confidence what the composition of the group is in respect to such other characteristics as sex composition, rural or urban residence, average income, occupation and educational levels, and nativity background. The demographic features of the Mexican American population of the Southwest will be delineated briefly, as major treatments are available on most of these characteristics (4).

Age structure. Because of high fertility rates (5) and recency of migration from Mexico on the part of a large segment of the population, Mexican Americans are a very young population. Their median age in 1960 was only 19.6 years. That of the native born was even lower, 16.2 years. This compares with a median age of approximately 28 years for the United States population as a whole. To put it another way, 24 percent of the population under five years old in Texas is Mexican American, but Mexican Americans make up only 15 percent of the total population. At the other end of the age scale, only four percent of Mexican Americans are 65 years old or older, while more than eight percent of the U. S. population is 65 or older. Since the young and the old are dependents, producers being those between 18 and 64, the dependency ratio of the Mexican Americans is high (84.6) (6).

Sex ratios. The sex ratio (number of males per 100 females) of the population is 102.6, not exceptionally high for a young and recently immigrant population. Indeed, it is sufficiently normal that no significance should be attached to the fact that it is higher than the sex ratio of the United States in general (ca. 97). As the Mexican Americans become increasingly urban, as fertility rates drop, and as they are less frequently increased by immigration from Mexico, the sex ratio should decline to a level resembling that of the population in general.

Rural-urban residence. Mexican Americans usually are thought of as rural people. They have traditionally made their living by agricultural "stoop" labor, following the crops from Texas northward throughout the middle of the United States to Montana, Michigan, Ohio, and points between. However, most Mexican Americans today are urban dwellers. Nearly 80 percent live in cities. As agricultural labor has become increasingly mechanized, they have "settled out" (or "peeled off"), as a recent study put it (7), of the migrant stream into cities of the Southwest and West. Some have settled in northern cities in Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio, but Southwestern communities such as Lubbock, Texas, the Lower Rio Grande Valley communities, and Los Angeles have become the homes of many more. This means that the problems which used to plague them as migrants in various communities now have become their problems in the communities in which they have settled. These communities now must deal with the presence of Mexican Americans and all that this implies for such public agencies as schools, health services, etc., on a permanent rather than on a seasonal basis.

Nativity. The very label "Mexican Americans" may suggest they are "hyphenated Americans," foreign born or the children of foreign born, with basic roots still in the "old country." However, the facts are that only 15 percent of the approximately four million Mexican Americans are foreign born, and only 45 percent are either foreign born or have one or both parents who were foreign born. Although this is higher than the average for the entire population of the United States (ca. 94 percent native born), the figures hardly represent a population predominantly foreign born. Furthermore, in New Mexico and Colorado, almost all of the Hispanic people are native born, only 3.8 and 2.9 percent, respectively, being foreign born. The Mexican Americans, however, have retained their ethnic identity to an extent greater than most other immigrant groups, with the result that they are identified, and identify themselves, as "Mexicans" many decades and even generations after contact with Mexico has been severed. This characteristic will be elaborated upon in the discussion of the conservative Mexican American social structure.

Household size. Because of the high birth rate and the resulting large number of dependent children, and because of a family system which puts an emphasis on maintaining kinship lines by including grandparents and other relatives in the family group, household size among Mexican Americans is large by Anglo standards. In Texas in 1960, 24.8 percent of the Mexican American households consisted of seven or more persons while only 15.1 percent of Negro households and 3.7 percent of Anglo households consisted of seven or more persons. Although the gap between Anglos and Mexican Americans is not as wide in the other Southwestern states as it is in Texas, a gap exists nonetheless (8). Viewed in the context of the generally inadequate housing which Mexican Americans occupy in Southwestern communities. it should be apparent that the home environment is not conducive to the privacy and concentration upon which successful school work depends.

Socioeconomic level – income, occupation, education. In a relatively open society as contemporary America, where the key to occupational success is education and the key to high income is occupation, socioeconomic level is gauged by considering all three of these demographic factors. Though there are exceptions to the rule that education opens occupational, and hence income, doors, the exceptions are infrequent. In the case of the Mexican Americans, success in any of the three areas is exceptional. Although it is a moot question whether the Negro or the Mexican American occupies the lowest rung on the community status ladder in the Southwest – and the answer would vary from place to place – it is clear that the Mexican American has low status throughout the region.

The median years of school completed by adult Mexican Americans in the five Southwestern states in 1960 was 4.7 years. In Texas, Mexican Americans over 65 years old had completed, on the average, only one year of school. In Lubbock, Texas, a city which prides itself on the educational achievement of its citizens and in which the median school years completed for the entire adult population is nearly 12 years, the Mexican American adult population had, in 1960, completed only 3.1 years. In a sample of Lubbock residents interviewed in the summer of 1963 (9), eight out of 15 Mexican Americans had never attended school. Indeed, in 1960 about 118,000 adult (over 25 years old) Mexican Americans, or eight percent of the total, had had no formal schooling at all.

Because occupational skills frequently are based on formal experience, many Mexican Americans are unable to compete in the job market. Detailed analyses of the occupational inferiority of the group may be gleaned from Barrett (10) or from the Census special report on *Persons of Spanish Surname* (11). Mexican Americans were underrepresented in prestigious jobs, especially the professions which require long formal education as a prerequisite, and overrepresented in such lower-level occupational categories as laborers and service workers.

The consequence of low educational achievement and low paying occupational outlets is, of course, low income. Nearly half of the Mexican American families in Texas are classified as being at the poverty level, with their family incomes less than $3,200 per year. Considering the large size of the household which characterizes these families, the available per capita income in the family is even lower than the income figures suggest.

C. *Cultural Characteristics* (12). Social scientists have used the term "culture" in a variety of ways, but the definition that has survived through the years and across the disciplines is that culture refers to the "designs for living" of a group, both implicit and explicit, which are historically derived (13). Thus, the values and norms shaping behavior in a group are at the core of its culture. An examination of this culture of Mexican Americans, based on Madsen's *Mexican Americans of South Texas,* might explain their persistence in following the ways of their forefathers.

A primary cultural value in Mexican American society is loyalty to the family. As Madsen explained, "The upper-class rancher and the lowly crop picker both think of themselves first as family members and secondly as individuals (14)."The composition of the family as well as the role complexes which comprise it will be discussed under the next heading, social structure; however, the expectation that family members are loyal to the unit and devoted to each other, and that, in the process, they show respect for their elders, is a basic cultural norm of Mexican American society. Rubel has commented that, "in *chicano* society the nuclear family stands forth clearly and distinctly. The loyalties of *chicanos* are home-centered . . . Social life at home is marked by clearly defined patterns of deference. A father represents stern but, ideally, just authority . . . The mother represents the nurturant aspects of family life. Early in life the children commence to learn their sex-typed roles (15)." In short, family life is central in Mexican American society, and loyalty of family members to it is a basic expectation of all members of the society. The notion that the old are to be deferred to by the young, and men by women, is a clear-cut expectation. As Rubel explained it, quoting a young housewife in *"Mexiquito:"* "In *la raza,* the older order the younger, and the men the women (16)."

A second major theme of Mexican American culture is that men are highly virile *(machismo)* while women are pure and chaste. To some observers of Mexican life, (Oscar Lewis, 17, for example) this would seem to be the organizing principle of Mexican culture. These cultural definitions of sex behavior cause stresses and strains in the relationships between the sexes, affecting life at all ages. Even the young are affected, for unlike Anglo middle-class children, Mexican American boys and girls may not play together freely in the heterosexual stage of development.

A third major cultural theme of Mexican American society, and one significantly different from Anglo American culture, is the notion that honor, prestige, self-reliance, shame, and related concepts are defined in terms of personal qualities rather than in terms of achievements. Many authors have commented on the invidiousness and anxiety which characterize relationships in Mexican American society (18), and they tend to concur that it relates to the stress on honor and esteem attached to what a person is rather than what he does. Anglos evaluate a person in terms of what he can do; Latins evaluate in terms of what he is. According to Madsen:

> *The concept of male honor requires the Latin to avoid being proven wrong. To take a stand on an issue and then retreat is regarded as degrading. Therefore, the Latin avoids openly stating an opinion unless he is ready to stand by it and defend it. When the Latin backs down from a stated opinion, he loses respect in the community . . .*
>
> *The manly Latin must repay an insult to himself or his family in order to defend the honor with which God endowed him. Revenge is usually achieved by direct physical attack, which may not be immediate but must be inevitable . . .*
>
> *Weakness is looked down on in all spheres of male activity. A man should be mentally and physically strong. Cripples are pitied but never regarded as manly unless their physical disability is compensated for by other strengths . . .(19).*

Such a highly personalized view of life is characteristic of *gemeinschaft* societies, in which the relationships between people are total and involve the whole person, rather than segmental, involving persons as players only in a given role. However, Mexican American stress on individual honor and esteem, and the need to defend it with overt action to avoid anxiety and stigmatization, seems excessive even for *gemeinschaft*-like societies.

Related to this cultural theme is a fourth one: a lack of goal orientation by comparison with Anglo American culture. It is to be expected that in a *gemeinschaft*-like society, goal or task orientation would be minimal; things will be what they are without the instrumentality of actions. Again, passages from Madsen illustrate this norm:

> *Instead of blaming himself for his error, he frequently attributes it to adverse circumstances. The Latin does not think he missed the bus because he arrived too late. He blames the bus for leaving before he arrived. It is believed that everybody is subject to temptation under certain circumstances. Many succumb due to human weakness, which is a universal rather than individual failing. Thus, Juan did not get drunk because he voluntarily drank too much. He got drunk because too much liquor was served at the party (20).*

Competition for school achievement, which middle-class Anglo Americans take for granted in their children, is shunned by Mexican American children.

> *. . . .Mexican American children especially dread being forced to recite in class. They know that their mistakes in English will be criticized in class and perhaps ridiculed after class by Anglo students. The push to excel and compete for grades violates the noncompetitive values of* La Raza. *A Mexican American student who conspicously outshines his age-mates in academic endeavors is mocked or shunned . . .*(21).

Madsen also pointed out that a "good many of the Mexican Americans who go on to college don't seem to know what they want out of an education . . ." and that this is particularly the case with Latins who are seeking a higher education than their parents received (22).

A cultural theme of the Mexican Americans which differs sharply from Anglo culture is time orientation to the present, or the immediate past, rather than to the future. Anglo Americans expect everyone at all ages to plan and work for the future, and to defer present gratifications for greater gratifications at some later time. Most Anglo Americans find it both incomprehensible and annoying that Mexican Americans do not plan or defer gratifications for the future, that they not only spend their wages as they get them but they also spend them on pleasures rather than necessities.

Lyle Saunders (23), in explaining time orientation in the Mexican villages from which this orientation derives, pointed out that, "the rhythms of life were seasonal rather than diurnal." Not only did the villager have no need for a watch, he also had no need even for a calendar. The Anglo American, by contrast, has his life controlled by split-second time measurements. Everything is scheduled: a television program, an appointment with a business executive, a plane departure for Dallas, all are set for specific times. The Mexican American prefers to let other norms take precedence over punctuality – visiting with a friend in the cantina may be more important than keeping an appointment with a potential employer. He may defer that which can just as well be done another day, doing today only that which must be done. And what he does today he does because it must be done, not because work is good or because he is driven by a zeal to work. In short, the Calvinist ethic is not a part of Mexican American ethics. When the night comes, it comes, and the things of the night are then taken care of, but now it is day, and it is sufficient unto itself.

These values and norms are internalized by the Mexican American in the process of being socialized in early childhood. They become for him the guidelines for living and for adjusting to situations and to people. For him, they are not only the best ways, but perhaps the only right ways of living. To the extent that his values and norms differ from those which Anglo Americans have internalized, the Mexican American will have difficulty in adjusting to Anglo Americans and their ways. And as long as Anglo Americans, including school teachers, do not understand and appreciate the differences, relationships between the two groups will be difficult and subject to strain. Since these basic Mexican American value orientations are learned before the child is in a position to discriminate between that which fits and that which doesn't fit the situations in which he finds himself, they become the foundation of his entire value orientation. Even though he may learn Anglo ways later in life, he cannot, by taking thought, get rid of his emotional attachment to and involvement in these life-ways. The newly acquired Anglo values often will be a veneer on a basic Mexican American value foundation; in crisis situations, the basic value orientations might be expected to show through the veneer.

D. *Social Structure.* Because all persons belong to groups within a larger society, group social structures affect the actions of every individual. If one is to continue to be accepted as a member of his group, he must conform to the roles which the social structure of that group dictates. Group social structure defines roles for inter-family relationships, roles to be assumed in the group's institutions, such as church and other organizations, and the relationships between members of society in general. These roles and relationships become patterned and routinized in the life of the group and its members; people's actions are shaped by the fact that they expect others as well as themselves to behave in these ways. As long as these patterned ways are acted out according to expectations, the social structure tends to conserve the values and norms which make up the culture and give the group its identity. Following is a discussion of these roles and relationships in Mexican American society, the instruments through which that culture is conserved.

Family System. Family systems define the relationships between husbands and wives, parents and children, the extended family, men and women in general, and young and old. In all family systems, the nuclear unit of dependent children is central; however, the system also may include elements foreign to an Anglo American understanding of family.

Such is the case with the Mexican American family. At its center is the nuclear unit, but as Madsen pointed out, "the bond between parents and children extends over three generations (24)." Whereas the contemporary Anglo American's recognition of kinship doesn't go beyond grandparents and perhaps a few aunts, uncles, and cousins, in Mexican American families kinship is extended to include people who are not genetically kin at all. This is accomplished through a ritual kinship known as *compadrazgo* (coparenthood). The most important *compadres* are the baptismal godparents of one's children, but all *compadres* assume "carefully defined roles in relation to the other participants in a religious ceremony establishing ritual kinship (26)."

It should not be assumed, however, that infinitely extended kinship, including ritual kinship, places upon the Mexican American unlimited obligations to all of his relatives. As Rubel stated: "Except for obligations toward elderly parents, married couples feel little economic responsibility beyond the nuclear family toward relatives simply because they are relatives. Rather, beyond the nuclear family, the outerworld, including relatives, is viewed with great reserve. . . . (27)"

Relationships between men and women, within the family and in general, are defined in terms of *machismo* for men and purity and chastity for women. Whereas boys in the family are given considerable freedom, daughters are kept in the home:

> *The teen-age daughter of a traditional family stays home and helps her mother with the housework after school and on weekends. Her most constant companions are her mother and sisters. She is never allowed to be alone with a boy. Her girl friends are often relatives or family friends who visit each other's homes . . . she prepares for her future role as a mother by helping to care for the younger children. In the event of her mother's sickness (she) is expected to take charge of all household tasks (28).*

In a recent survey in Lubbock, Texas, it was found that female Mexican American interviewers were more successful in gaining rapport with Mexican American respondents of both sexes and all ages than were male Mexican Americans. Even though the male interviewers were members of the in-group, they were viewed with suspicion and distrust by the interviewees and their families.

Another major principle of Mexican American family life is respect for elders of both sexes, with Mexican American children showing extraordinary respect for their parents and grandparents. However, as Rubel has indicated, respect for the father has different bases than that given to the mother. "The father must be respected because of his authoritative position at the head of the household, whereas the mother is respected because she minimizes her own necessities in order to better provide for those of her family. She devotes herself to her family, and the consistent idealized portrait one receives of Mexican American mothers is that of a suffering *(padeciendo)* woman (29)."

Both of these basic organizing principles of Mexican American family life are threatened by the acculturation of the young to Anglo values and practices, much "to the disgust of the more conservative Latins (30)." Restraints on the behavior of teen-age girls are being relaxed, and wives are becoming less submissive as they become increasingly Anglicized. This results in role conflict in the Anglicized family. Madsen has argued that such Anglicization is much less characteristic of lower than of middle class Mexican Americans, but his entire scheme of stratification in Mexican American society is based on degree of acculturation, somewhat vitiating the strength of his argument (31)."

Membership in Formal Associations vs. Informal Relationships. Most immigrant groups which have come to the United States have formed ethnic associations in which their native language is spoken and their folkways preserved. These organizations have served the immigrant well, helping him maintain his ethnic identity while adjusting to the political and social mores of the American city. Mexican Americans, however, in spite of several generations of residence in the Southwest, have not organized such groups effectively, and many observers of the American scene wonder why. The answer does not seem to lie, as some observers have remarked, in "The individualistic nature of Hispanic peoples, which vitiates (sic!) against group action (32)." Rather, the answer seems to lie in the fact that Mexican Americans moved from the folk culture of Mexican villages, a society in which voluntary associations are nonexistent because they are not needed, into an increasingly urbanized American culture in which they are the respected instrument of public action. While other immigrant groups had been familiar with voluntary associations in the "old country," Mexican Americans had no such experience.

Why, then, did they not develop such associations as they became acculturated? The answer is that, as a group, they really have not become acculturated. Furthermore, there are elements in their culture which put a premium on personalism in human relations rather than on formal associations. Sheldon has summarized the reasons for their failure to organize voluntary groups:

> *It is not surprising that Mexican Americans have been unable to put to effective use the tool of the mass voice to promote the common good of their group. They are in fact not a group; they do not speak with a common voice; they do not have mutual agreement; they are fragmented first by their heterogeneity and second by the tradition of individualism.*
>
> *Other and perhaps more subtle factors militate against their forming effective coalitions or developing strong leaders: the tradition of first loyalty to the extended family; the pattern of the double standard and of clearly defined male-female roles; the rural folk distaste for individual advancement at the expense of one's peers; these and other traditional values in opposition to the mores of the Anglo-urban society place the Mexican American at a disadvantage. They also create value conflicts in the upwardly mobile middle class (33).*

Rubel, in discussing Mexican American political participation, pointed out that they are no less interested in politics and elections than Anglo Americans, "they simply organize their activities in a different fashion (34)." In another discussion, Rubel explained the "different fashion" in which Mexican Americans participate: "Among Anglos, friendships derive from consociation in formal corporate groups, such as Lions Club, Rotary, Optimists . . . and others too numerous to mention here. By contrast, *chicanos* incorporate formal groups on foundations of informal associations with acquaintances or *palomillas* (35)." In other words, from the Mexican American's point of view, Anglos have "the cart before the horse;" associations should spring from existing informal relationships rather than serve as instruments through which informal relationships are created and achieved.

There are, of course, all kinds of Mexican American organizations, and some have fairly large memberships. Most are post-World War II in origin, but some are older than that. Sheldon quotes a Mexican American newspaper in East Los Angeles to the effect that there are approximately 85 Mexican American organizations in that area (36). One result of the Second World War and the Korean War was that leaders appeared among the Mexican Americans whose horizons were broadened by military experience and who were able to pursue higher education through the GI Bill. However, these experiences also resulted in a measure of acculturation and assimilation that reduced their Mexican American identity and culturally removed some from their groups.

Recent evidence suggests that the post-war surge of interest in political and civic affairs on the part of Mexican Americans, an interest which was intensified by the elections in 1960 and 1964 and by the Kennedy appeal to Mexican Americans in general, has diminished once again. A recent report from the UCLA Mexican American Project indicates that an analysis of voter registration in Los Angeles County showed a sharp decline in Mexican American registrations.

> *...if Los Angeles County is an indicator of the political participation of Mexican Americans in the Southwest, the minority group's political strength is rapidly diminishing . . . It is probably safe to say that persons who identify themselves as Mexican Americans represent less than five percent of the total registered vote (37).*

The report pointed out that the decline in voter registrations between 1958 and 1965 in the 14 predominantly Mexican American Los Angeles census tracts was 20.2 percent.

It can be seen that Mexican Americans participate in organized groups differently from Anglo Americans, viewing them as extensions of personal relationships and *palomillas* rather than as instruments for achieving goals of the group. Personalism in relationships between people takes precedence over group interests.

Social Stratification and Upward Mobility. Another major factor shaping relationships between people in societies is the stratification system, especially the degree of rigidity which characterizes the stratification scheme. By "layering" members of the society in strata which carry differential rewards and opportunities, relationships between people within and between the layers are significantly affected. The rich and well-born differ from the less fortunate in life chances as well as in life style. As a consequence, representatives of the different groups may have so little in common that, although they both share in the same general culture, meaningful interaction between them is impossible.

Among the more than 4,000,000 Mexican Americans, there are differences of rank within a stratification system. However, regional differences and variations are such that it is impossible to generalize about the entire population. Studies in Tucson and Pomona do not layer the population in the same way or on the basis of the same criteria as do studies in "Mexiquito" and Kansas City (38). This means that occupation, income, education, and other customary indices of stratification are defined differently in the several sub-sections of the country where Mexican Americans live. Furthermore, the degree of acculturation influences the extent to which the usual criteria are meaningful in evaluating the socioeconomic status scheme among Mexican Americans.

Generally speaking, the five- or six-class stratification system which American scholars use in describing the typical American community seems to be a function of urban, industrial society in which upward mobility through individual achievement is characteristic. In folk, or pre-industrial, societies, however, two classes typically exist: the privileged, and all the rest (39). As Mexican Americans increasingly become part of urban, industrial society – and this would seem to be more the case in California and Arizona than in Texas – one might expect to find four or five levels of stratification. However, as Madsen and others have pointed out, occupation, education, and income data suggest that this doesn't really correspond to an equivalent scheme in Anglo American society. The biggest gap, especially in Texas communities, seems to be between agricultural laborers and all others. Rubel explained this in his study of "Mexiquito:"

> *Those employed as agricultural field laborers do not interact with others not so occupied, nor do members of each of the occupational groups attend public dances in the plaza on the same evening. Observations of behavior in Mexiquito indicate that the schism between agricultural laborers and others is widening, but further status distinctions within the Mexican American society have been slower to emerge (40).*

Although the differences of rank within Mexican American society may not be clear, those between Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans are. In most of the Southwest, these are categorical, caste-like differences. As Rubel stated,"no matter how highly ranked a *chicano*, he is subordinate to Anglos (41)." Some of the more educated Mexican Americans – who occupy prestigious professional and managerial occupational niches in society because of their education – become Anglicized to the extent that they leave their ethnic identity behind, moving "up and out" into Anglo society. However, this move out of *chicano* society is rarely complete for the first generation of successful Mexican Americans.

Any system that is not a totally closed caste order provides for upward mobility. Where cultural and ethnic differences are involved, such upward mobility usually involves a significant degree of acculturation and assimilation on the part of the minority group member. Mexican Americans who are upwardly mobile are no exception. Madsen reported, for example, that the upwardly mobile are more likely to belong to Protestant churches. "The *inglesado* . . . hopes that his affiliation with a Protestant church will help him achieve social acceptance in the Anglo community. He sees conversion and the Protestant ethic as keys that will unlock the door to the Anglo world (42)."

The extent to which Mexican Americans are upwardly mobile is a matter of considerable disagreement among scholars. After analyzing 1950 census data, Donald Bogue concluded that," . . . of all ethnic groups in the United States, the Mexican Americans constitute the only ethnic group for which a comparison of the characteristics of the first and second generation fails to show a substantial intergenerational rise in socio-economic status (43)." The most recent progress report of the UCLA Mexican American Study Project, however, concluded that there is considerable intergenerational upward mobility, as well as a corresponding geographic mobility. Evidence was cited to the effect that approximately 40 percent of those interviewed in Los Angeles currently in the medium and high income bracket had begun work as unskilled laborers, 16 percent of them as agricultural field laborers (44).

Doubtless there is upward mobility and almost certainly it is increasing. However, there are formidable obstacles for most Mexican Americans. One is the high visibility caused by facial features and pigmentation; another is the visibility caused by their language and culture. Another obstacle is the lack of a time orientation toward the future and the absence of the Protestant ethic which characterizes Anglo Americans. The large family system is also a deterrent; research evidence indicates that success in school is much less likely where the child comes from a home with many siblings (45).

An obstacle to upward mobility that requires additional comment is the "up and out" pattern which has characterized the successfully mobile in the past. This has resulted in resentment on the part of those who are less successful in their striving as well as those who choose to remain in the group. Sheldon, in discussing the "up and out" pattern in Los Angeles, said:

> *Among his friends there is a strong and sometimes bitter feeling toward certain persons who have used positions of leadership or potential leadership in the Mexican community for their own personal advancement, especially those who move out of the Southwest, typically to take jobs in Washington. These people are described as opportunists who marry an Anglo girl and "become Spanish grandees," no longer defining themselves as of Mexican decent (46).*

However, Sheldon noted that a considerable amount of such upward mobility, including geographic mobility which results in separation from the ghetto, has been taking place in Los Angeles (47), and presumably elsewhere as well.

One of the consequences of successful "up and out" mobility is that it removes from the community those who might best serve as success models for those who remain. It is illogical to expect youth to consider it desirable to be Mexican American if those who succeed in acquiring an education and a better job give up their Mexican heritage. A typical reaction might be that of a Mexican American college student who, when asked by Dr. Heller if anyone in his neighborhood had become successful, replied, "Yes, but he moved away and, as far as the boys are concerned, he is no longer Mexican (48)." Dr. Heller concluded, however, that there is an increasing tendency on the part of successful Mexican Americans to stress their ties with the Mexican American community, and "their very existence probably plays a part in the new mobility orientation of Mexican American youth (49)."

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM

In creating and implementing a bilingual teacher education and counseling program, what implications can be drawn from the social structure, history, and demographic situation of the Mexican American? This depends, in part, on the aims of the program with regard to the future of the minority group. Policies regarding minority groups in the United States have vacillated in two directions. One has been toward assimilation, the immediate or eventual absorption of the minority into the majority culture. The other has been pluralistic, to maintain the existence and identity of the minority as a distinct entity within a society of different cultural groups. The same programs would not be effective in achieving the two different aims. It has been assumed in this report that pluralistic rather than assimilationist aims prevail in contemporary American minority-group policy, and that the teachers and counselors prepared by the program will pursue pluralistic ends in their teaching and/or counseling.

A. *The Selection of Student Participants in the Program.* Several dilemmas confront administrators of programs in selecting student participants. The first is that Mexican Americans who are not too Anglicized be found for the program. However, the fact that the college program takes only those who have graduated from high school means that those selected are atypical, not only statistically, but also culturally. They have deferred gratifications of the moment to pursue successfully a high school diploma; they were imbued with enough of the competitive and striving spirit which Mexican American culture deprecates to finish high school; and they have (especially for girls) come from families sufficiently Anglicized to allow them to prepare for vocations outside the home and to mingle freely in heterosexual situations during adolescence. Furthermore, they are willing to spend four more years pursuing advanced education in a university, and to become teachers in an Anglo dominated public school system in which the same competitive spirit and deferment of gratifications are prerequisites for successful work in the system. In this system, in addition, successful adaptation to associations, both voluntary and required, such as PTA, is expected of the teacher.

Another aspect of this problem is that students be chosen who can succeed in a competitive Anglo system while maintaining their integrity as Mexican Americans. While this is no small problem, it may be only a theoretical one due to the small number of applicants and the shortage of available students.

The second dilemma involved in selecting students is that the program, if confined to the primary grades, mainly will attract girls. There are two reasons for this: (1) the overwhelming majority (more than 90 percent) of teachers in the first three or four grades of public schools are women, and (2) the sharp differentiation between the sexes in Mexican American society, with men not demeaning themselves by doing "women's work," will keep men out of the program. While there are no academic reasons for those who teach in primary grades to be women, there is such an expectation in the culture of Mexican Americans of the Southwest. Even in the secondary grades it will be necessary to involve girls disproportionately for the counseling program, for, in the traditional Mexican American view, males represent a sexual threat to women, and male teachers and counselors, therefore, would be seen as a threat to adolescent girls.

The lack of successful role models for boys has been a major problem in Mexican American society. Perhaps this could be alleviated somewhat by devising methods to attract men to the teaching profession. To do this, physical education might be added to the list of specializations at the elementary level. Bilingual physical education teachers and coaches at the primary level could provide success models in terms of physical prowess, an area highly respected by Mexican American males.

B. *The Curriculum and Program in General.* As Sanchez has indicated, bilingual teachers must be, first and foremost, good teachers. In this respect, the proposed Mexican American Teacher and Counselor Program should be no different from any teacher education program, for programs to produce good teachers are as relevant here as anywhere. Nevertheless, the importance of excellent teachers for Mexican Americans cannot be overstressed, for it is the interested, enthusiastic, compassionate teacher who will do the most for the Mexican American.

CHAPTER III

THE ROLE OF LINGUISTICS IN A BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR TEACHERS OF MEXICAN AMERICAN AND MIGRANT CHILDREN

Linguistics: The Nature of the Science

Linguistics is defined generally as the science that describes and classifies language (1) (2) (3). Specialties within this science include historical linguistics, which traces the development of a language; contrastive linguistics, which describes the differences in structure between two languages; comparative linguistics, which determines the genetic relationship between languages; and descriptive linguistics, which analyzes modern languages. Socio-linguistics, anthropological linguistics, and machine translation are other specialized areas. Psycho-linguistics is an interdisciplinary effort on the part of psychologists and linguists to gain a better understanding of language acquisition, language of the child, aphasia, and bilingualism. Applied linguistics, which can be described as that part of linguistic science which has a direct bearing on the planning and presentation of teaching material, seems directly related to the bilingual education program.

The scientific study of a language is divided into phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

Phonology is the study of sound systems. Phonemes are distinctive sound features with no assigned meanings. The substitution of one phoneme for another in a word triggers a change of meaning, e.g. *pill, bill, kill.*

Morphology is a study of morphemes. Morphemes are the minimum units of sound with identifiable meanings. They are not necessarily identical with syllables or words: e.g. *vamos* is one word but contains two morphemes. The morpheme *va* serves as the stem of the word, and the morpheme *mos* denotes the first person plural ending. The methods which linguists use to describe languages relate to the problem of constructing and presenting drills to be used in the classroom to reinforce learning of basic patterns of acceptable speech.

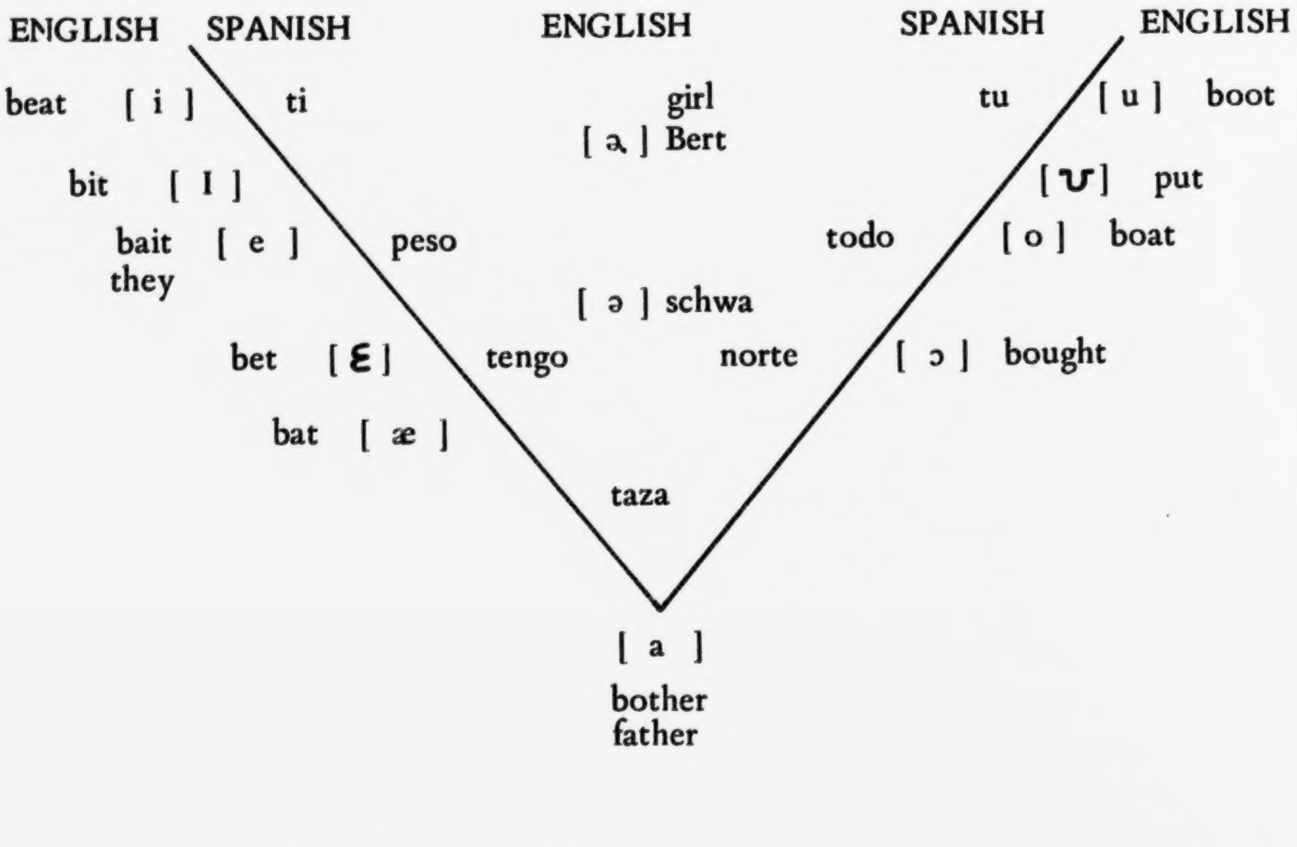
Syntax is the study of the relationship between words and the generation of phrases and sentences based upon these relationships. The most important syntactical manuever in English is the substitution of word-groups for single words within the framework of the four functions of the noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. The next most important syntactical manuever in English is the freer movement of the adjective and adverb functions than the noun and verb functions. The observation of Donald J. Lloyd that statement-sentence patterns are few in number (five) resulted from the application of the theory of functionality to syntax (4). Consequently, four functions and five basic sentence patterns simplify the task of the teacher of English (5). Specifically, pattern drills, basic sentence patterns, and dialogues involve the movement of modifiers to convey meaning to nouns and verbs.

Semantics is the study of meaning. Semantics relates to actual and potential experiences of the speaker. "In order for words to function in communication, they must mean something and they must not mean too much nor too little (6)." Semantics is necessary in studying Spanish because of cultural contrasts in the utilization of certain expressions which are acceptable in some Spanish-speaking areas in this hemisphere but which are totally unacceptable in others.

Relevance of Linguistics to the Teaching of English as a Second Language

Research studies reveal that linguistics has a special role to play in the teaching of English as a second language (7). It is at the phonemic level that the learner of the second language most often produces sounds which differ from normal pronunciation. "The differences of interpretation of the phonology are proof that we are selectively deaf to the patterned habits of a second language (8)." This is true, of course, whatever the second language may be. As Faye Bumpass has stated, "A person 'listening' to another language actually does not 'hear' the sound units which do not exist in his native tongue (9)." Thus the person who speaks Spanish, with its relatively simple five vowel system, has a real problem when confronted with English, which has more than twice as many vowels.

To illustrate the differences between the vowel sounds of the two languages, this diagram might be helpful, although it should be noted that the problems may be oversimplified here:



Note: Vowel Triangle follows Bumpass (9) with open *o* added because of sound resulting from adjacent consonant. [See Bolano y Isla: *Breve manual de fonetica elemental* (10).]

This chart demonstrates why the native speaker of Spanish has so much difficulty with the relatively simple (to the speaker of English) words basic to the vocabulary of elementary school children: *hit, cat, dog, book, girl, hear.* In addition, the unstressed vowel sound (the *schwa*) does not exist in the Spanish language. Spanish has the same phonemes in unstressed as in stressed syllables (11). Moreover, interference results from the diphthongization in English of nearly all vowel phonemes, whereas in Spanish vowel phonemes are pure.

The consonants are no less different to articulate. Some of the most common errors include: [β] for [v]; [s] for [z]; [ɣ] for /g/; /x/ for /h/; and devoicing of final voiced consonants. The /b/ as in *boy* gives difficulty. The Spanish speaker says the Spanish *voy* because his lips do not close when he makes the sound indicated by his letter /b/. The sound of the explosive /b/ is not in his language. The /s/ as in the *sh* sound of *shine* and *nation* also may be considered. This sound does not exist in the Spanish language nor does its voiced counterpart, /dʒ/, as in *jump*. The English /r/ is unlike any Spanish sound and is heard in terms of a foreign accent (12). This accounts for the difficulty encountered in teaching the words *girl, word, hear, reason.* This sound, /r/, is difficult for the student who speaks Spanish as a native language, whatever may be the position of the phoneme /r/ in the word (13).

This is not intended to be a complete presentation of the consonantal sounds which are difficult in the study of English as a second language (consonantal clusters such as the *thr* in *three* present a problem), but the sounds presented do give an idea of the problems encountered.

What, then, is the role of linguistics in second-language learning? In the case of the native speaker of Spanish, the problem is not as insurmountable as it seemed in 1959 when an authority said, "Phonemic variants and their environmental distribution is an easy but infrequently taught part of phonology (14)." In the last eight years, phonological concepts have been more widely used by language teachers.

This means that first the teacher recognizes the problem area and, following sound linguistic practices, constructs drills utilizing minimal pairs or uses resources already prepared and available. He finds words (morphemes) which differ only in two sounds (phonemes), one of which is the new one which he wishes to teach, as in:

/i/ heel, hill, /I/
peel, pill
sleep, slip
heap, hip

to teach the new phoneme /I/ as opposed to /i/ which the speaker of Spanish already says.

Or for the consonants (s) and (z), this list might be utilized:

Sue, zoo
sip, zip
sink, zinc
rice, rise
ice, eyes (15)

Then, the teacher repeats the pairs as the student begins to learn first to listen and then to repeat. The student must be trained to listen for minimum changes in sound that cause shifts in meaning.

Next, short utterances are practiced. These consist of useful phrases in basic sentence patterns entailing use of sounds on which much drill has taken place. Attention also is given here to intonation, to rhythm, to stress, and to juncture in the utterance. This is called pattern practice and is based on sound linguistic research in phonology, morphology, and syntax. Pattern practice is used to perfect linguistic habits that will in time become automatic. It should be emphasized that the pace of the drill period should be brisk, the drills should be varied, visuals should be used to assure complete understanding of lexical meaning, there should be choral practice followed by opportunity for individual performance, and every effort should be put forth by the teacher to maintain the interest of the student and to insure a feeling of satisfaction and accomplishment on his part (16).

The step which usually follows pattern practice is memorization of dialogues consisting of short, meaningful sentences which the student can use in many situations. With continued pattern practice, the student learns to vary and to expand the basic sentences. According to Robert Lado in *Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach,* "It has been determined that to employ shorter dialogues and more of them is more efficient."

"For example:

'Is Victor home?'
'Yes, he is.'
'May I see him?'
'Yes, you may.' "

"The dialogue does not show possible variations, but anchors two good examples in context: *Yes, he is; Yes, you may* (17)." In addition, this dialogue teaches intonation patterns for questions and responses as well as for juncture. The notion of patterning extends not only to sound, but to grammar, to syntax, and even to vocabulary, as Archibald Hill stated in an article, "Language Analysis and Language Teaching," in the *Modern Language Journal* (18).

It can be seen that "the linguist capitalizes on the following factors: forming habits, systemization of presented material, intensive pattern practice, contrasts, and substitutions. The oral-aural aspect of the language is of utmost importance. This is the linguist's first step and he follows it throughout . . . It is not until (the student) has many established patterns of speech that he is taught to read (19)." Eventually a complex of habitual reactions (reading without translation) based on the same linguistic principles must be provided for in drill (20).

After the skills of listening and repeating are perfected and memorization has taken place in controlled situations, the teaching of reading and writing may be begun, with control still exercised. However, linguists are interested primarily in spoken language. The fact that their findings aid in the teaching of reading, spelling, grammar, and literature is a byproduct – and a most valuable one – to teachers of languages.

Some Unanswered Concerns

The science of linguistics has proper application to the development of a program concerned with bilingual teaching. It should be noted, however, that there are concerns to which linguistics does not provide solutions.

Linguistics is not a panacea for all the ills associated with teaching spelling, reading, grammar, literature, and foreign languages. It does not solve the problem of preparation or selection of teaching materials which can be used efficiently in classrooms that include students of widely varying experiences and abilities. Linguistics may aid in teaching effectively in an overcrowded classroom, in the beginning of language study, simply because rigid attention is demanded in listening and repeating the sounds of the language. Behavioristic deviations do not occur when the language situation in this way is made meaningful enough to maintain interest.

Although psycholinguistics studies the problem of motivation and attitudes for the learning of language, as yet no solution has been reached (21). Linguistics does not solve the problem of how the teacher may teach the fifth hour of the day with the same enthusiasm and energy as he has for the first class he meets, but it may cause him to select electronic devices and use tapes and records which will aid in drill and produce the desired result.

Linguistics does not yet help measure the relative IQ of the bilingual and the monolingual, but research is going forward in this area and some progress should be noted soon in measuring the language proficiency of the bilingual as opposed to the monolingual. The development of verbal performance tests will one day show the relation between *infant bilingualism* and *childhood bilingualism* and what we may expect of these children. [*Infant bilingualism* means the simultaneous learning of two languages, and *childhood bilingualism* usually means the establishment of a second language during the early school years, after the first has been learned in the family (22)].

The Relevance of Linguistics in the Education of the Bilingual Teacher

The inclusion of the study of linguistics in the training of the bilingual teacher is as relevant as in the development of the English teacher or the Spanish teacher. This belief is supported by several authorities in the field of language and education:

"It is not enough to speak a language to be qualified to teach it. Even the native speaker cannot model the language or guide the students unless he can isolate and demonstrate its various elements. He must know the description of the structure of the language (23)."

"Scientific linguists have long understood that ability to speak a language fluently does not necessarily confer a linguistic knowledge of it (24)."

"Many teachers would do well to get a clear idea of the structure of English . . . what is needed is to teach the teachers better (25)."

"The language teacher profits immensely from the results of linguistic analysis . . . the technique of contrast and substitution which are of tremendous importance in linguistic analysis are equally important in teaching the language (26)."

Linguistics can order the teaching of Spanish or English so that there is a minimum of interference from either language. The teacher can be made aware of the position of the articulators in producing different sounds, as well as the various positions of words in relation to each other to produce meaningful expression. With this knowledge the teacher can develop, select, and use instructional materials which will produce results – that is, mastery or better understanding of the target languages. Application of linguistic principles makes the teaching of the skills of reading and writing easier.

Spelling and reading are interrelated. According to Robert Hall: "As soon as our society comes to realize that its ideas concerning language . . . are defective and inefficient, and that linguistic science can help better them, we may look for the beginnings of improvement . . . Years of each child's school life could be saved that are now wasted in an inefficient way of learning to read and to spell (27)."

The situation in 1968 is not so bleak as it was in 1950. Now there is a wealth of materials on the market which claim to be based on "sound linguistic practices" or announce themselves as "linguistically oriented." The teacher of bilingual students needs to be made particularly aware of the pitfalls inherent in believing all advertising and to become acquainted with the work of authorities in the field of linguistics who have researched, produced, and practiced in areas related to this field of education.

The role of linguistics, then, in the Bilingual Teacher Education Program will be two-fold in that it will have both short-range and long-range objectives.

The immediate goal is to produce a bilingual teacher thoroughly conversant with the structures of the Spanish and the English language, who will be able to select or construct materials for the teaching of subject matter in those languages with the help of well-documented research in the many-faceted field of linguistics. This teacher should be able to teach effectively habits of articulation in order to avoid and to overcome interference of the speech habits of one language with the other.

The long-range – and more important – goal is to enable the bilingual teacher to reach a large segment of the elementary and secondary school population (28) of the Southwest and to teach these young people the basic skills in the two languages they are expected to use in order to function successfully.

This bilingual community, with its awareness of the historical legacies and the appreciation for the literatures of the two cultures represented, could become one of the greatest assets of this section of the United States.

CHAPTER IV

UNDERSTANDING THE GUIDANCE NEEDS OF MEXICAN AMERICAN STUDENTS

A Review of Selected Research Studies

Research related to the guidance needs of Mexican American children has been conducted for more than a quarter century. It has appeared, however, merely as part of the larger literature of individual differences and educational methodology. This lack of identification or concentration might be accounted for in several ways. There are, for example, many who maintain that studies concerning schools and students reach conclusions which are appropriate and applicable for all identifiable sub-groups. Too, there are many sections of the nation where the education of the Mexican American poses neither a practical nor a theoretical problem.

Perhaps more studies have centered around the sociocultural aspects of Mexican American youth than all other areas combined. In specific appraisal areas, the comparative studies of intellectual achievement factors are the most numerous. It is disappointing, however, that the valuable and informative studies concerning the personal, social, vocational, and learning characteristics of Mexican American children, which provide essential cues for meeting the guidance needs of these students, are neither collected nor collated. Because of the isolation of these studies and the fact that sequential studies and replicated research are all but nonexistent, it is difficult to trace the historical development of concern for these students. To be sure, there can be seen in the research frequent admonitions to educators to consider carefully their special needs. Much of the literature relating to lower socioeconomic groups, social disadvantage, poverty programs, and bilingual education cites the Mexican American child as a case in point or, perhaps, devotes space to reviewing his plight.

A careful review, however, leads one to conclude that little in the way of specific results has evolved. There has been much reviewing, at times with a modicum of alarm, but little in the way of long-range action programs based on substantial research and study.

The intent here is neither to review all the available studies nor to evaluate those cited. It is, instead, to select published research studies in areas which might reveal information important to meeting the guidance needs of Mexican American students. Studies of recent rather than historic origin are emphasized. In some areas, such as comparative studies of measured achievement, where numerous studies have been reported with similar design, populations, and results, reviewing one or two should cover the conclusions of many. There undoubtedly are studies which are not available in the general literature. In fact, the author believes that some of the most pertinent research is still tucked away in school district studies, master's degree theses, counseling center reports, and less well known bibliographic sources. Perhaps in time these either will be replicated or given more extensive circulation.

For the time being, the studies reviewed are those which tend to raise common questions, survey important areas, or draw meaningful conclusions. As more studies are produced, it is hoped that they will have the interrelatedness which will insure a more generalized application.

INTELLECTUAL CHARACTERISTICS

It should be apparent to anyone who has worked with Mexican American children in a school setting that there are some unique problems in the areas of ability testing and academic achievement evaluation. While the measurement of human learning ability is a nebulous task at best, the task is magnified when the subject is atypical. This is manifested in testing the ability of the Mexican American child; although he is both bilingual and bicultural, he usually has less facility in a language than his monolingual counterpart. This language deficit and cultural barrier leads many educators and psychologists to give little, if any, credence to quantitative test results. The scholastic disadvantage the Mexican American student suffers as a result of his bilingual and bicultural background also is manifested in his general academic achievement. Because of inability to understand (and possibly apathy for) these problems, educators have yet to meet the intellectual needs of Mexican American students. The following selected research studies are presented in an effort to draw conclusions regarding the problems of understanding the evaluation of intelligence and scholastic achievement of Mexican American students.

Ability Testing Research

Numerous studies have cited the low performance of Mexican American children on IQ tests in comparison to their Anglo American classmates and/or the test standardization sample. Researchers, in trying to analyze the educational plight of the Mexican American child, have succeeded in describing conditions and results but have had little success in drawing diagnostic conclusions. The mean IQ differential between the two groups has been found to be 20 or more IQ points in favor of the Anglo group in carefully controlled studies reported for more than a score of years. On the verbal scale of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), Altus (1) noted a 17 IQ-point higher total average by the Anglo group, even after having equated the two groups on the basis of WISC Performance IQ scores.

Upon comparing a sample of Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans on several tests of verbal and non-verbal abilities, Johnson (2) found that the Anglo group significantly outperformed the Mexican American group on all the subtests of verbal ability. No significant differences were found between the two groups on non-verbal tests of intelligence. Jensen (3) compared groups of Mexican American and Anglo American fourth and sixth graders of differing IQ levels, ranging in IQ from 60 to 120, utilizing a similar approach. He compared the two groups on a number of learning tasks, including immediate recall, serial learning, and paired-associate learning of familiar and abstract objects. He found that on the direct measurement of learning ability in the study, Anglo American children were slower learners when compared to Mexican Americans of the same IQ level. Mexican Americans in the average or above average IQ range did not differ significantly from Anglo Americans in the same IQ group, but measured high IQ s were very rare among Mexican Americans. Jensen concluded that IQ measures are less valid for Mexican Americans than they are for Anglo Americans of low ability and suggested that IQ scores should not be used as a basis for school grouping when both ethnic groups are involved.

A five and one-half year study comparing the ability of Mexican American and Anglo American children was conducted in California by Carlson and Henderson (4). Realizing the ethnic differences in IQ scores, the researchers attempted to match the Mexican American and Anglo American samples on as many variables as possible. These test variables included: Primary Abilities, Pintner-Cunningham, Kuhlmann-Anderson, California Test of Mental Maturity, and the Stanford-Binet. The results showed the Mexican American group to have consistently lower mean IQ scores than the Anglo American group, with the difference between the two groups increasing in magnitude from the first to the last testing. The authors were reluctant to draw any conclusions concerning the reasons for these differences, pointing out only that every attempt was made to control as many variables as possible, yet evidently there were still uncontrolled variables other than ethnicity.

Other researchers have reported similar findings. Johnson (5) found a significant difference in mean IQ on the Otis IQ (verbal) test favoring Anglo American subjects, while the comparison on a non-verbal scale (Goodenough) showed no significant difference between the two groups. Cook and Arthur (6) compared Mexican American children's test performance on the verbal sections of the Stanford-Binet with the non-verbal or performance sections of the Stanford-Binet. The mean score on the non-verbal scale was 101.06 IQ points with a verbal mean of 83.77 IQ points, sufficient for an interpretation of significant difference between the two scales.

On the basis of these and other similar findings, it must be concluded that present measures of scholastic aptitude or intellectual ability are inadequate indicators of the learning potential of Mexican American children. There is some evidence supporting the premise that both verbal and performance type tests should always be used with bilingual students. It is not obvious on the basis of these findings whether the poor test performance of the Mexican American students is due to the often-cited bilingualism, biculturalism, or a combination of these and other factors. No definitive conclusions seem in order until these and other findings can be viewed in conjunction with the research reviewed in the following sections which deal with related causative factors.

Ability and Achievement

Some researchers have attempted to analyze the low test performance and achievement of Mexican American students by examining factors which have some effect on performance. In identifying these variables for study, these reports have aided in understanding the resulting educational problems of Mexican American students.

Holland (7) has tabbed the "language barrier" as one of the major education problems of Mexican American students. He conducted a study with 36 Mexican American students in grades 1C (a special pre-first grade designed to teach English to unacculturated Spanish-speaking students) through grade five, using a special Spanish-English adaptation of the WISC.

Holland defined "language barrier" as the difference in a student's bilingual verbal IQ and his English verbal IQ. On this sample the average language barrier was 4.6 IQ points. He noted a further deficiency revealed by the difference in WISC performance test scores and the bilingual verbal scores (5.6 IQ points). Holland believed this difference could be explained best by the low socioeconomic background of Mexican American students. On the basis of his analysis of the test results, Holland came to the following conclusions:

(1) There was an average language barrier of 4.6 IQ points per student. In 18 cases the language barrier was very serious, in seven it was serious, and in eight it was moderate. Only three students were completely free of language barrier.

(2) Although language barrier declined with increased schooling, it was still present among some fifth graders. Many first, second, and third graders still had moderate to serious language barriers.

(3) Although grade 1C reduced language barrier considerably, many students beyond this level still had serious language problems.

(4) A child had a language barrier when his knowledge of Spanish was greater than his knowledge of English, with the condition originating in the lack of acculturation.

(5) Language barrier was an important factor in the low academic development of many Spanish-speaking students.

(6) Aside from language barrier, the substandard verbal development of Spanish-speaking children probably was the result of being bilingual and having to forfeit a more thorough knowledge of one language for partial familiarity with two.

If inferences can be made on the basis of this limited sample, it would seem that the learning problem of the Mexican American pupil is at least two-fold: a language barrier caused by a bilingual background and a verbal deficiency extending beyond the language barrier as a result of low socioeconomic conditions.

Johnson (8) conducted a study to examine the relationship existing between bilingualism as measured by a reaction-time technique and language and non-language tests of intelligence. The subjects for Johnson's study were 30 Mexican American boys from the Southwestern region of the United States. The boys were enrolled in grades four to six and ranged in age from nine to 12 years. All of the boys used English in school and had a knowledge of Spanish learned in the home. The evaluative instruments included the Otis Test of Mental Ability, the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test, the Hoffman Test of Bilingualism, and the Reaction-Time Test of Bilingualism.

Comparison of the test results yielded the following:

(1) Scores on the Goodenough showed the Mexican American subjects were average for the total population, while the mean IQ on the Otis was considerably below average.

(2) The Reaction-Time Test of Bilingualism revealed that the subjects were able to respond with more English words than Spanish words at a rate of 7 to 5.

(3) There was a negative relationship between the performance on the Otis and bilingualism: the higher the Otis IQ, the less knowledge of Spanish in comparison to English.

(4) The higher degree of bilingualism was associated with superior performance on the

Goodenough.

(5) The greater the subject's knowledge of English in comparison to Spanish, the less the difference between scores on the Otis and Goodenough.

It was apparent on the basis of this sample that the Otis and Goodenough are not measures of the same factors. Johnson concluded that the degree of bilingualism is relevant to test performance, in that bilingualism presents complex problems which possibly render both linguistic (Otis) and performance (Goodenough) tests invalid for Mexican American students.

Another approach to the analysis of the problem of the lower intellectual development of Mexican American children was made by Henderson (9) in a study in Arizona. He compared the backgrounds of a sample of six-year-olds for whom success in school was predicted with a sample for whom poor school performance was predicted. The Goodenough-Harris Draw-A-Man Test and the Van Alstyne Picture Vocabulary Test were administered to 378 Mexican American six-year-old children; the 38 children who scored highest on these tests were designated "high potentials," and the 42 who scored lowest were designated "low potentials." A comprehensive study was then made of the environmental backgrounds of the 80 subjects. Interviews with the mothers of the subjects were conducted and an Index of Status Characteristics was computed for each family. Scores on the Index of Status Characteristics correlated .37 with the criterion used to predict school success. Composite scores for nine environmental variables correlated .59 with the success criterion scores. Henderson found that high potential children scored significantly higher than low potential children on vocabulary tests in both Spanish and English. The descriptive analysis showed high potential families traveled more and made available more varied experiences for their children than did the families of low potential children. Both groups were interested in education for their children, but the families of low potential students were more concerned with meeting daily needs than were the high potential families.

A comprehensive study of several linguistic functions of Mexican American children was conducted by Linn (10) at the University of Southern California in the early 1960's. Three groups of seventh and eighth grade students were selected for study. One group spoke Spanish and English; another group spoke only English; and the third group was composed of children who spoke only English but with parents who spoke both Spanish and English. The three groups were matched on the basis of age, grade, non-language intelligence, and socioeconomic status. Several tests of linguistic abilities were administered to all three groups. On the basis of this study, Linn drew the following conclusions:

(1) Children taught only English before kindergarten surpass students using both Spanish and English in silent reading comprehension, mechanics of English, general language development, oral reading accuracy, and oral reading comprehension.

(2) Children taught both Spanish and English before entering kindergarten are more prone to have defective articulation.

(3) The inflection of children who spoke Spanish and English before kindergarten differs from those who spoke only English.

(4) There appears to be a difference in the production of a few English vowels between the two groups. It also appears that children whose Spanish-speaking parents have

taught them only English produce certain vowel sounds differently.

The results of this study seem to indicate that a large part of the language item difficulty encountered by Mexican American children on intelligence measures is due to the effects of bilingualism.

Non-Intellectual Correlates

The following studies primarily were concerned with non-intellectual correlates of academic achievement and ability of Mexican American students. While other studies in this survey have made reference to non-intellectual factors, these studies seemed to yield particular insights with special significance to this topic.

Gill and Spilka (11) investigated personal and maternal correlates of academic achievement among Mexican American secondary school students. Four groups of high achieving and low achieving boys and girls were identified and matched in age, IQ, grade level, and school courses taken. The groups were all subjected to the following measures: Otis IQ Test, grade point averages based on academic subjects, parental variables (Drews and Teahan Parent Attitude Survey), California Psychological Inventory, Siegel Manifest Anxiety Scale, and the Sewell Anxiety Adaptation Scale. Results revealed that high achievers manifested significantly less hostility and more social maturity, intellectual efficiency, and conformity to rules. Achieving girls and underachieving boys seem to come from strong mother-dominated homes.

Steen (12) examined the effects of immediate and delayed secondary reinforcement on the learning patterns of a group of Mexican American children. She attempted to determine if the achievement barrier between middle-class oriented schools and the value-attitude systems held by Mexican American children from low socioeconomic backgrounds could be overcome with social reinforcement. The results confirmed her hypothesis that Mexican American children who are immediately reinforced during an instructional period will achieve more on subsequent tasks than will children whose reinforcement is postponed. Steen was not able to confirm her predictions that children who receive delayed reinforcement will show more achievement behavior than children who do not receive any reinforcement.

A study conducted by Johnson (13) explored ethnic group differences in certain personal, motivational, intellectual, and achievement characteristics. The subjects for his study were Mexican American and Anglo American eighth grade students. The study had two major purposes: (1) to determine if selected differences did exist between the ethnic groups, and (2) to determine if these differential characteristics existed between low, middle, and high achievers for both ethnic groups when achievement status is determined by teachers' marks. Instruments used were the Warner Scale of Socioeconomic Level, the California Test of Mental Maturity, and the School Motivation Analysis Test. On the basis of the results of this study, Johnson made the following observations:

(1) The grade-point-average criterion appeared to be less vulnerable to cultural bias than standardized achievement test scores for estimating the school performance of Mexican American pupils.

(2) The existence of measurable differences on standardized tests of intelligence and

achievement was not supported unequivocally by this research. The low achieving Mexican American girls were identified as the primary group that was most likely to show significantly lower test scores than their Anglo American counterparts.

(3) The findings clearly demonstrated the functional utility of the motivation test with Mexican American junior high school pupils.

A study designed to evaluate the effects of increased exposure to the English language on verbal and non-verbal measures of intelligence in bilingual children was conducted by Fitch (14). A group of first and second grade bilingual students was matched with a group of first and sixth grade bilinguals according to sex, socioeconomic status, and group IQ scores obtained by both groups in the first grade. None of the children had attended kindergarten and all had used Spanish as their primary language prior to the first grade. A trained psychological examiner administered the Ravens Colored Progressive Matrices and the WISC to all subjects. It was found that, in general, performance tests are more appropriate than verbal tests for Mexican American children with little exposure to English. As the Mexican American child grows older and has more exposure to English, the disparity between the verbal and performance test scores decreases. The Vocabulary Test of the WISC showed a significant difference favoring the fifth-sixth grade group.

Stanford (15) found that IQ test scores for Mexican American children increased in 80 percent of the cases from one school testing until the next. She suggested that more frequent testing might be beneficial for a school with a large number of Mexican American children. This report, like the preceding study, seemed to indicate that increased exposure to the English language tends to increase the tested ability of bilingual students.

Palomares and Johnson (16) conducted a study designed to compare two types of tests administered by two examiners of differing backgrounds. The tests used were the WISC, Goodenough, and the Wide Range Achievement Test. Although the two examiners were both experienced in psychological testing, one did not speak Spanish and had a limited background in testing Mexican American pupils, while the other spoke Spanish fluently and was a Mexican American with a cultural background similar to that of the children tested. The subjects were a group of Mexican American students referred by the principal for special education (EMR) evaluation. The findings of this study:

(1) The mean grade level as tested by the achievement battery was two grade levels below the grade placement. Arithmetic was the highest achievement area, indicating that it is more "culture-free" than other academic areas.

(2) As a group, the referrals had a mean IQ on the Goodenough of 95, with mean WISC scores of: verbal IQ 71, performance IQ 87, and full scale IQ 77.

(3) The non-Spanish-speaking psychologist found 74 percent of the students eligible for EMR (below 79 IQ) while the bilingual-bicultural psychologist found only 26 percent eligible.

The authors concluded that verbal tests of intelligence are relatively poor indicators of the ability of Mexican American children. The results of this study indicated that the Goodenough and similar culture-free tests should receive more use by those responsible for the evaluation of Mexican American pupils. The authors further concluded that the importance of the background of the examiner as a variable was substantiated in this study.

Summary

In comparing the verbal IQ of Mexican American and Anglo American groups, the research, without exception, showed a significant difference in favor of the Anglo American samples. Some degree of inconsistency was noted in comparing the two groups on performance or non-verbal measures. Some researchers reported no significant differences in performance IQ by ethnicity, while a few showed slight to moderately significant differences favoring Anglo samples.

In every study reviewed comparing Mexican American childrens' test performance on verbal and non-verbal scales, significant differences were noted favoring the non-verbal or performance type tests. "Culture-free" tests such as the Goodenough seemed to reveal potential ability not measured by the more commonly used verbal type tests. By matching groups of students on the basis of age, sex, socioeconomic background, educational experiences, and total cultural complex, researchers have attempted to measure the influence of language barrier or bilingualism. Testers consistently concluded that language barrier was relevant to learning ability as measured by IQ tests. In an attempt to control the effects of language barrier, studies have been designed using various bilingual tests. However, after groups of Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans were matched and language barrier was accounted for, significant differences in IQ still existed. The causative factors for this remaining difference typically was not explained.

Utilizing direct measures of learning ability, only one study found the Mexican American outperforming the Anglo American of the same IQ level (17). Another study concluded that past achievement (grade point average) was a superior predictor of future achievement than any of the standard measures typically used in the schools. Several writers suggested that standardized tests of both verbal and non-verbal variety were of little value in evaluating the abilities of Mexican American students, while others recommended that more consideration be given to the performance type tests. Some inconsistency was noted in the effects of age on the IQ of Mexican American students. While two studies indicated that age and increased exposure to English increased the mean IQ, another showed a decline in measured IQ with age.

Conclusions

Conclusions, although tentative, might be summarized by the following observations:

(1) Mexican American scholastic performance is, in general, below that of comparable Anglo American children. This lowered performance is the result of bilingualism, biculturalism, language barrier, socioeconomic background, motivation, educational opportunities, family influences, and attitudes toward education. The greatest single influence appears to be language barrier, which manifests itself in a verbal deficiency.

(2) Age seems to affect achievement in that the older the students are, the more the

disparity between the achievement levels of the Anglo and Mexican American groups. This probably is due to the basic nature of education, in that each year is dependent upon the achievement of the previous year for background. On the other hand, age decreases the difference in IQ scores between the two groups. This is thought to be due to increased exposure to English.

(3) Anglo Americans consistently outperform Mexican Americans on verbal IQ tests. Mexican Americans do better than Anglo Americans of the same tested ability on measures of direct learning experience. This difference probably is due to bilingualism, biculturalism, and past experiences.

(4) Very little, if any, difference between the two ethnic groups exists when compared on non-verbal IQ tests. Mexican Americans score significantly higher on non-verbal tests than they do on verbal tests, which would seem to have direct implication for school testing and guidance programs.

(5) Past performance or previous grades are a better predictor of success for Mexican American students than any standardized measure, with performance IQ test scores being good indicators of potential learning ability. Verbal IQ test scores should be viewed as indicators of the present level of verbal functioning, but the IQ test should not be used as the basis for grouping when both ethnic groups are involved.

(6) A good combination of verbal and non-verbal measures should be included in school testing programs where bilingual students are in attendance. Development and standardization of better measuring instruments for use with Mexican American students are essential.

(7) The background and experience of the examiner is an important variable in the evaluation of Mexican American student abilities. While this is essentially true for all individual appraisal, apparently more discrepencies arise when the person is not familiar with the cultural group represented by the student.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

A review of the literature revealed that little empirical work has been done in assessing the personal characteristics of the Mexican American ethnic group. This probably is due to a lack of recognition on the part of educators that personal characteristics can have an important cultural or ethnic differentiation, a negative attitude in the schools toward standardized personality tests, and suspicion toward personal assessment inventories and interviews on the part of Mexican Americans. Nevertheless, a few studies are available that deal with what may be identified as personality and personal-social characteristics of the group. The studies reported here deal for the most part with self-concept, personal-social problems, needs, ambitions, and attitudes peculiar to the Mexican American ethnic group.

Research

Najmi (18) conducted a study designed to measure and compare self-concept and other related personality variables in Mexican American and Anglo American elementary school children. Subjects were 104 students in each ethnic group, 58 boys and 46 girls, from grades four, five, and six. The Problem Inventory and Adjective Checklist were administered to all subjects orally, and the Sociometric Questionnaire was administered in the regular classrooms. The instruments included measure of self-concept with other scales measuring attitude toward school, attitude toward others, anxiety, sociometric status, and personal-social problems. An analysis of variance was applied to the scores of the two groups on the various scales, and correlations were tested for significance. An analysis of the data revealed the following:

(1) No significant differences in self-concept were demonstrated between the two ethnic groups.

(2) There was a close relationship between consciously felt problems and expressed anxiety for both groups. Attitude toward self and attitude toward others were highly related.

(3) Anglo American girls experienced more anxiety in the face of problems than did Mexican American girls, while Anglo boys' self-concept was more related to attitude toward others than was the Mexican American.

(4) The self-concept of a Mexican American boy was more closely related to academic problems than to social relationships in school.

(5) A stronger relationship between school problems and self-concept existed for Mexican American than for Anglo American boys.

(6) For both groups, in general, girls showed greater negative attitudes toward self, greater anxiety, and more conscious problems than did boys. Boys showed a greater tendency to reject others than did girls.

Although there was not a significant difference, the data consistently pointed toward Mexican American girls being more influenced by their particular social-psychological situation than were any of the other three groups.

A study designed to investigate the relationship of hostility to a combination of low socioeconomic status and minority group membership was conducted by Swickard and Spilka (19). Eighty-one Mexican American and Anglo American delinquent boys on court probation served as subjects. All subjects were administered the Siegel Manifest Hostility Scale, Edward's Social Desirability Scale, the Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study, and the Lie Scale of the MMPI. Significant negative correlations were found between the Social Desirability Scale, the Siegel Manifest Hostility Scale, and the scores on extrapunitiveness from the Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study. Significant positive correlations were found between the Social Desirability Scale and the measures of intropunitiveness and impunitiveness with the Mexican American group manifesting significantly greater hostility.

Parmee (20) conducted a study concerned with the personal-social problems of Negro, Anglo, and Mexican American high school students coming from different ethnic backgrounds. He analyzed the causes of adolescent problems in terms of their relationship to ethnic versus adolescent influences, concluding that adolescent problems resulted from a combination of their participation in the American adolescent society and their particular ethnic culture. The most obvious ethnic differences were in the area of personality and self-concept. The two minority groups reported a low self-concept extending to the devaluation of physical appearance, personality assessment, and estimation of their own abilities.

A school in California organized an investigation of the needs and problems of the Mexican American student (21) through a series of interviews with Negro, Anglo, and Mexican Americans, attempting to delineate the needs and anxieties of the Mexican American group. The investigator was a Mexican American with a similar cultural background to that of the students. The investigation revealed that Mexican Americans feel a desperate need to achieve and to belong. They want to be respected, and they want a chance to earn that respect; they want to feel that they are liked and are accepted. While these feelings are not unlike those expressed for other groups, an opposing opinion is at times cited to the effect that the Mexican American places little value in any of these needs.

Ambitions of Mexican American youth were examined by Heller (22), who compared the social mobility aspirations and means of realization of Mexican American and Anglo American high school seniors. A comparison of mobility goals of the two groups showed:

(1) Mexican Americans had lower mobility ambition.
(2) The ambition of Mexican American youth did not vary by parental occupation, education, country of birth, or family size.
(3) Mexican American boys in integrated schools aspired more to non-manual jobs than did those in non-integrated schools.

Heller observed that the means of mobility differed greatly between the two groups. The proportion of Mexican Americans who did not expect to go beyond high school was twice that of Anglo Americans, while the proportion of Mexican Americans who anticipated graduating from college was only one-third that of Anglo Americans. This difference diminished greatly when social class was held constant. One-fifth of the Mexican Americans and one-half of the Anglo Americans were taking the high school college-preparatory academic curriculum. This proportion remained the same, however, even when social class was held constant. The hypothesis that differential IQ scores would account for this was tested and held true for this sample. Heller proposed that the differences between the ethnic groups were due to differential socialization in the home. In general, the Mexican American home does not tend to prepare youth for intellectual effort, for it does not emphasize education nor does it instill achievement and independence motives.

A study of attitudes toward education of Mexican Americans and Anglo Americans was conducted by Demos (23). When the groups were matched on socioeconomic level, intelligence, age, grade, and sex, it was found that Mexican American children had a significantly poorer attitude than did the Anglo Americans on six issues: (1) importance of elementary school education, (2) school staff's concern about students, (3) desirability of a gang, (4) value of a college education, (5) desirability of dropping out of school, and (6) importance of good school attendance. Demos explained these differences in attitude as being due to ethnic group membership, a trait of the Mexican American culture and background.

A study designed to test the hypothesis of proportionately more dropouts among Mexican Americans and to isolate and examine the associated factors was conducted by Sheldon

(24). The subjects of this investigation were the students who left three Los Angeles Public Schools. The results showed that (1) socioeconomic status was a major correlate of dropouts, (2) a higher relative proportion of Mexican Americans than Anglo Americans were dropouts, (3) more instability and dropouts occurred in schools that were predominately Mexican American, (4) there was no significant difference in school dropouts by sex, and (5) "unsatisfactory" behavioral ratings by teachers on report cards was positively related to dropout rate.

Conclusions

Research studies relating to personal characteristics of Mexican American youth, particularly their attitudes, values, and feelings, have been particularly scarce. While some relatively recent research investigations pertaining to the broad area have been surveyed here, they are so widely separated in focal point, questions raised, and even populations used, that a summary or general conclusion is impossible.

Perhaps the main conclusion is the obvious need for additional studies in this area. The way in which Mexican American students at various educational levels view their schools, teachers, subjects, future, and each other, are areas in which we have little knowledge. Perhaps more effort should be devoted to these questions, as well as to the accuracy of achievement measures or studies in social pressures. In fact, they probably cannot be separated for either practical or theoretical purposes.

Research of this nature is currently under way in several places in the Southwest. Hopefully, those who work with Mexican American students should, before long, have some generalized conclusions and at least a beginning for predictive analysis. If educators are to work with these children more effectively in teaching and student personnel programs, it must not be long in coming.

SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Understanding Mexican American students is contingent upon an understanding of their social and personal-social life. The range of sociological research in this area is perhaps the widest in Mexican American studies. Therefore, only selected studies have been reviewed here to cover topics of concern to school counselors: mutual images and assumptions between Mexican and Anglo Americans, social visibility and intelligence, attitudes of Anglo Americans toward Mexican Americans, ethnic cleavage, leadership characteristics, family ties, social mobility, assimilation, and the joining habits of Mexican Americans. For extensive and a more sociological coverage of this topic, one is referred to other sections of this publication.

Research

Ethnographic and sociometric procedures were employed by Parsons (25) to study ethnic cleavage in a California village of approximately 1,800 people, 45 percent Anglo American and

55 percent Mexican American. Observational and interview techniques were used in the community and school during a three-year period with administration of a sociometric instrument involving 491 of the 591 pupils in the school. The data indicated that:

1. (1) There was a dramatic, almost total, cleavage between Anglo and Mexican American adults in the community. This cleavage was supported by sets of mutually reinforcing stereotypes held by the members of the two groups.
2. (2) The adult patterns were reflected within the school and reinforced by certain school programs, with marked cleavage in all grades, accelerating rapidly after the third grade. This cleavage was greater among girls than boys.
3. (3) There was 90 percent cleavage by the sixth grade and 100 percent by the mid-eighth grade.
4. (4) Anglos at all levels had more in-group self-preference than did Mexican Americans; but where prestige was involved, Anglos showed extreme in-group preference and Mexican Americans showed high out-group preference.

Simmons (26) dealt with a fundamental aspect of this problem when she stated, "There are major inconsistencies in the assumptions that Anglo Americans and Mexicans hold about one another." She pointed out that Anglo Americans consider Mexican Americans inferior but at the same time their equal or peers. Another way of viewing this inconsistency would be that Mexican Americans are believed to have undesirable characteristics which make it "reasonable" to treat them differently from fellow Anglo Americans, yet they have the ability to adopt similar characteristics which would promote equality. The Mexican Americans' images of Anglo Americans are also primarily negative, with these negative images somewhat defensive in nature.

Anglo Americans expect Mexican Americans to become just like them in order to attain equal status, although this would mean relinquishing the old culture almost completely. Mexican Americans, on the other hand, want to gain equal status and full acceptance regardless of whether they conform to the mores and folkways of the dominant Anglo American group. According to Simmons, if equal opportunity and full acceptance are contingent upon the disappearance of cultural differences, they will not be realized in the foreseeable future.

Many persons underestimate the significance of early cultural conditioning and its effects on personality development, tending to view differences negatively and overlook positive aspects. The values and attitudes that Mexican Americans hold are the most constructive and effective means they have been able to develop to cope with the bilingual-bicultural world in which they live. Simmons concluded that Mexican Americans "will further exchange old ways for new only if these appear to be more meaningful and rewarding than the old, and then only if they are given full opportunity to acquire the new ways and to use them."

Mulligan (27) found that the "dominant" Anglo American members of a community rejected Mexican Americans under inter-marriage situations but began to show more acceptance as the relationship grew more distant. Only one percent of the sample would support inter-marriage while 31 percent reported they had personal friends who were Mexican Americans. Thirty-seven percent were willing to have Mexican Americans as neighbors, and 59 percent would accept them as business competitors. In general, the higher the socioeconomic level of the respondent, the greater the social distance. It may be that social distance scales fail to be a good indication of how the individual really feels or how one would react when confronted with a true situation. The results here, however, do tend to reflect the generalized prejudice and acceptance which is in direct ratio to increasing social distance.

In a study of the social life of urban Mexican Americans, Rubel (28) found that this ethnic group continues to be subordinate to the Anglos of the community, with the differences between the two groups based on social class criteria as well as on ethnic characteristics. Mexican Americans occupied the bottom of the employment pyramid and performed all of the less desirable work in the city and surrounding farmlands, although some were socially mobile. Rubel noted that the most important social unit is the family and, within the Mexican American household, interaction between family members is guided by well defined avenues of respect. Perhaps this inner directed social interaction has deterred the expanding community roles of Mexican American citizens.

A study designed to examine dominant-subordinate group relationships and their effects on leadership generated in the subordinate group was conducted by Watson and Samora (29). The findings revealed that the Mexican American:

(1) leadership is strongly authoritative, with the leader's goals much like those of Anglos – better jobs, more material things, and better education.

(2) is reluctant to lead because he hesitates to be at odds with Anglos. Also, his own ethnic group is not inclined to follow because they feel that a Mexican American who has achieved leadership status has "sold-out" to the Anglos.

(3) has not "revolted" against Anglo leadership, because, when a Mexican American is successful, the Anglos accept him and his leadership capabilities. This may, however, serve to widen the gulf between the Mexican American leader and his own group.

These inter-cultural factors in the relationship between the two ethnic groups seem to be of strategic importance in explaining Mexican American leadership deficiency. They further emphasize the observation that the successful (in Anglo terms) Mexican American socially and culturally moves "up and out" so that his leadership influence is essentially lost to the Mexican American community.

In a study of Mexican American culture and family life, Crow and his associates (30) observed that the family is of utmost importance. In this setting, the woman characteristically plays a subordinate role, resulting in a traditionally patriarchal culture. The family may extend to include not only blood relatives, but also godparents, sponsors, and marriage witnesses. Mexican Americans regard their cultural background as superior to that of the Anglo, but they tend to negate it on discovering that their customs are devalued by the dominant Anglo American group. Because the pressures for equality result in the sacrificing of Mexican American cultural values that he considers superior to those adopted, his personal adjustment in a multi-ethnic school setting often reflects his cultural conflict.

Penalosa and McDonagh (31) tested the hypothesis that upward social mobility increases in the Mexican American population by generation and that the more acculturated individuals are the most mobile. They examined the amount of social mobility that had taken place in a Mexican American community, and studied the relationship between vertical mobility on the one hand and ethnic and horizontal mobility on the other. An area random sample of Mexican

American adults disclosed the following:

(1) In the total Mexican American population studies, 40 percent had been upwardly mobile, 31 percent nonmobile, and 27 percent downwardly mobile.

(2) The second generation Mexican American in the sample showed more upward mobility than the first generation, had the highest average income and occupational status, and was over-represented in the highest status residential areas.

(3) Upwardly mobile Mexican Americans were better educated, more often preferred English, were more likely to be Catholic, had a greater degree of class awareness, and had higher annual incomes. The upwardly mobile Mexican Americans also had retained their ethnic identification.

(4) No significant relationships were found between vertical and horizontal mobility in the sample.

Peck (32) examined the relationship of intelligence to social perception, the differentiation of social role groups according to their intelligence, and the possibility of ethnic influences on social visibility. A sample of 1,217 eighth-grade boys and girls from three Texas communities was used, with subjects from both Anglo American and Mexican American homes. The instruments used in the study were the California Test of Mental Maturity and McGuire's Role Nomination Test. From the results of the study, Peck made the following observations and conclusions:

(1) Intelligence was positively related to nomination to the roles of "brain," "wheel," "big imagination," and "average one." Intelligence was negatively related to nomination of "day-dreamer."

(2) Anglo Americans were nominated more frequently by both groups than were Mexican Americans. The Mexican Americans won much less attention from both groups, and, in fact, seemed to downgrade themselves.

(3) A negative halo-effect seemed to reduce the prominence of Mexican American students in ethnically mixed schools. To be intelligent or have high ability was harmful to social status within the Mexican American group, and this seemed to lead to a passive attitude early in life.

An examination of the place of Spanish surname personnel in the occupational structure of 10 hospitals in four Southwestern communities was made by D'Antonio and Samora (33). The report revealed that a small number of the Spanish surname population were in high status jobs, a considerable number in medium status jobs, and the largest number in low status jobs. Using the employment of persons in high and medium level occupations as a partial measure of assimilation, the authors concluded that the predictions of some social scientists concerning the rate of assimilation of Mexican Americans have been too pessimistic. Warner and Strole, for example, in their prediction failed to take into account such factors as the consequences of World War II, urbanism, population ratios, the influence of the border area, and the potential for mobility provided through religious affiliated organizations. This report, although related to a specific working setting, found optimistic indications for job opportunities and the future assimilation of Mexican American youth.

Officer (34) investigated the joining habits of Mexican Americans in Tucson, Arizona, in order to gain insight into their socio-cultural integration. It was found that Mexican American membership in formal organizations fell far below the population percentage, and was concentrated in labor unions, Catholic parish organizations, team sports clubs, veteran's associations, Democratic political societies, and segregated social clubs. A relatively small percentage of Mexican Americans belonged to voluntary associations. Anglo discrimination did not emerge as a major cause of low Mexican membership; rather, more significance could be attributed to differences in group history, language, income, and education. These factors encourage residential separation, which in turn discourages the joining of Mexicans and Anglos in organizations founded on a neighborhood base.

Bullock (35), in analyzing the employment problems of the Mexican American, noted many social and personal characteristics that relate to guidance needs. He pointed out that Mexican Americans generally have not banded together to demand equal opportunity, as the American Negro has. This partially is due to their individualism and basic distrust of organizations, but it was stated that a growing political awareness is coming into many Mexican American communities of the Southwest. The Mexican American is caught between two cultures; he is asked to reject his old culture in favor of one which often is in conflict with his traditional values, causing considerable stress. In addition, Bullock noted that satisfaction of present wishes and needs tends to take precedence over long-range planning which requires immediate sacrifices. The Mexican American pattern of living involves a mixture of individualism and family unity which leaves little time for community or organizational interest. The primary obligation is to self and family with little time for school, community, or clubs. Many of these cultural attitudes are in direct conflict with the attitudes promoted by the public schools.

By their very nature, society and the schools, as an agent of that society, present both opportunities and obstacles in the Mexican American's quest for a place of importance and acceptance. The school counselor must realize, through personal experience or genuine understanding, what such personal and cultural conflict does to the Mexican American community, the family, and the student.

Conclusions

Understanding the individual and gaining insight into his learning and behavioral patterns are prerequisite to any effective guidance program. In general, for the Mexican American student there has been a lack of both insight and understanding.

A summary of current understanding of Mexican American students and the influence such knowledge has on providing guidance services is contained in two recent publications. In these, Heffernan (36) and DeLeon (37) each has drawn conclusions from authoritative opinions in the literature and knowledgeable persons who work with Mexican American students.

Heffernan (38) presented eight problem areas of Mexican American youth. These problems and the recommended solutions:

(1) *Low level of aspiration* of Mexican American youth can be overcome, in part, by:

    - (a) encouragement,
    - (b) better tests,
    - (c) individual counseling,
    - (d) providing accurate vocational information,
    - (e) informational talks to ninth graders, and
    - (f) visits to high schools and junior colleges. The group can be given hope by actually experiencing success, by gaining a better understanding of the world of work, and understanding the importance of education.

(2) *Lack of parental aspiration and support of educational effort* can be relieved somewhat by:
    - (a) home visits by sympathetic teachers,
    - (b) PTA meetings in Spanish,
    - (c) informational booklets and other parental correspondence in Spanish,
    - (d) involvement of bilingual leaders, and
    - (e) adult education for Mexican American parents.

(3) *Economic insecurity* can be eliminated partially by helping students get part time work, helping worthy families obtain public assistance, and helping needy students get scholarships.

(4) *Lack of feeling of belonging to the peer group* can be decreased in public schools if school authorities:
    - (a) publicly recognize outstanding Mexican American students,
    - (b) elect them to class offices,
    - (c) establish Mexican American scholarships,
    - (d) encourage Mexican Americans to compete for these scholarships,
    - (e) encourage students to enter their work in art festivals, science fairs, and competitive meetings,
    - (f) encourage participation in school social life,
    - (g) organize international clubs, and
    - (h) conduct intercultural programs in schools, civic clubs, and community organizations.

(5) *Inadequate facility in the use of the English language* can be partially overcome if educators:
    - (a) provide instruction in unsegregated classes,
    - (b) provide special tutors,
    - (c) provide classes in basic skills at all age levels, and
    - (d) provide training in the practical aspects of language such as job interviews and writing business letters.

(6) *Failure to see the value of education* can be eased by:
    - (a) examples of successful people of their ethnic group,
    - (b) determining employment opportunities for Mexican Americans who are educated,
    - (c) helping secure scholarships, and
    - (d) keeping parents informed of the opportunities for their children.

(7) *Differences in cultural values* can be reduced if educators:
  (a) include Mexican Americans in community projects,
  (b) stress the likenesses of the cultures,
  (c) offer courses in Latin American culture and history,
  (d) guide promising Mexican Americans into leadership professions, and
  (e) provide inservice education for teachers.

(8) *Low community standards* can be eliminated to some extent if educators:
  (a) adapt educational programs to their needs,
  (b) teach practical English,
  (c) create a favorable school climate,
  (d) work with parents, and
  (e) cooperate with community agencies.

DeLeon (39) summarized the educational problems of Mexican American students with a plea for a new educational philosophy designed to meet their needs. He suggested that this philosophy be developed only after careful consideration of the Mexican Americans' particular needs, which partially are a result of:

(1) living in a bicultural community,
(2) lack of acceptability by the dominant Anglo society,
(3) isolation and separation which has produced unassimilated social units,
(4) low socioeconomic status, and
(5) the inherent cultural lag.

Further, he suggested that educational theory and practice, in order to meet the needs of Mexican American youth, should:

(1) incorporate the sociological processes of acculturation, diffusion, and assimilation,
(2) enhance a functional theory of culture and its relation to the growth of human personality, and
(3) establish within the existing educational objectives a means for easing the Mexican American's social integration and cultural assimilation in American society.

The counselor who serves schools with Mexican American students, either in a uni-ethnic or multi-ethnic setting, should play a large part in carrying out these suggestions. It is not for the counselor alone to correct misconceptions, replace misunderstandings, supply needed information, or provide the necessary atmosphere. He can, however, lead the way. He should exemplify one who is knowledgeable as well as concerned. He should be one who has the professional skills to help the child, and through him the parents and the Mexican American community, move toward the objectives which have long been a part of both Anglo and Mexican cultures, but which have been beyond the reach of many Mexican American students in our schools.

For the long range goals of Mexican American achievement, educators must recognize that the problem of Mexican American education is not simply one of language, but rather one of role acceptance, identification, self-concept, and social values. The school counselor can make significant contributions to the Mexican American student's search for self and the development of his true potential.

CHAPTER V

COMPETENCY PATTERN OF EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

What is a good teacher? This concept has been the subject of considerable literature over the past 30 years. Since the publication of *Teachers for Our Times* (1) by the American Council for Education in 1944, educators and researchers have attempted to provide acceptable answers. Diverse viewpoints have been expressed; various models or prototypes have been presented. To date, however, disagreement still exists regarding what constitutes effective teaching.

In this study the purpose has been to develop a competency pattern of knowledges, perceptions, attitudes, and skills considered essential to the effective teaching of Mexican American students in classrooms with a cultural mix. The elements comprised in the competency pattern are derived from systematic observation and analysis of the behavior patterns exhibited by teachers at work. No attempt has been made to establish a universal model or stereotype that assures superior teaching, for the competency pattern of an effective teacher includes multiple elements seen in their proper interrelationship rather than as a composite. Educators recognize that competencies per se do not make a teacher effective, for there are components in addition to knowledges, attitudes, and skills. The work of Combs, Ryan, Lindsey, Mursell, Soper, Hughes, Smith, Fatter, and others, have supplied evidence that effective teaching is a highly personal phenomenon in which the possession of certain knowledges about a subject, attitudes towards pupils, and perceptions about teaching do not guarantee or assure effective teaching. Combs, in summarizing a five-year research project in Florida on what is a good teacher, concluded:

> *The good teacher is no carbon copy but possesses something intensely and personally his own . . . The good teacher has found ways of using himself, his talents, and his surroundings in a fashion that aids both his students and himself to achieve satisfaction – their own and society's too. We may (therefore) define the effective teacher formally as a unique human being who has learned to use himself effectively and efficiently to carry out his own and society's purposes in the education of others (2).*

This concept implies a change from the traditional mechanistic view of teaching to a personal and individual viewpoint which places a high premium on the human relations approach. While the effective teacher should be knowledgeable and skilled in methodology and the use of teaching aids, he must also be concerned with the maximum intellectual growth, personal development, and individual needs of his students.

What is Effective Teaching?

One of the most comprehensive studies of what constitutes effective teaching was made by the Commission on Teacher Education, appointed by the American Council on Education (3). At the conclusion of the five-year study, which was carried out from 1939 to 1944, a detailed analysis of qualities and competencies considered essential for effective teaching was published in *Teachers for Our Times.* The analysis was submitted as a guideline for the development of preparation programs in the future. While the recommendations were general rather than specialized, they nonetheless are relevant to a study of the development of teachers for Mexican American students in culturally mixed classrooms. The Commission's recommendations were (4):

(1) Respect for human personality – the ability to accord respect to children of a subcultural group as worthy and deserving rather than as representative of a minority group.

(2) Community-mindedness – the ability to establish sound community relations.

(3) Rational behavior – the intellectual and emotional maturity sufficient to deal with personal and professional problems.

(4) Skill in working cooperatively and in collaboration with others – thinking, choosing, and acting.

(5) Sufficient general and specialized knowledge – an in-depth understanding of the arts and humanities and natural and social sciences to provide necessary breadth, interrelationships, and applications to the solution of the problems involved in teaching effectively.

(6) A commitment to continued increase in knowledge and personal and professional growth – the good teacher never ceases to be a student, retaining his curiosity and cultivating an inquiring mind.

(7) Skill in establishing a rapport with pupils – good teaching requires a favorable relationship with learners characterized by mutual respect, trustfulness, and a wise and objective friendliness.

(8) Understanding and insight into the learning processes and human growth and development – the effective teacher of children *must* possess the tested knowledge from the biological, psychological, and sociological disciplines as related to motivation, animation, responsiveness, and conditioned behavior.

(9) Social understanding and behavior – the teacher has a unique responsibility to the society which he represents over and above that of the ordinary citizen. Due to the fact that the teacher is the key element and agent in the school, the function of which is to "ensure social perpetuation and progress," the teacher must have a special understanding of the society's problems, issues, trends, and possibilities.

(10) Understanding and skills in human relations – teaching, while a complex process, is essentially personal and is, basically, the interaction of persons working and learning together. At a time when educational technology is producing a vast array of "teaching" machines and automated devices that have useful functions in the learning process, effective teaching still demands a sharing of responsibility between teachers and pupils for planning, programming, goal setting, evaluation, attitudinal and habit development, and extensive cooperative activities related to and guided

toward goal achievement.

(11) Skill in evaluation – an effective teacher must understand the complex nature of the evaluative process and achieve definite skills in the utilization of appropriate techniques of evaluation. The evaluative process demands sharing and cooperative assessment of goals by the teacher and the learner, the search for multiple kinds of evidence by the individual pupil and the teacher, and continuous appraisal of the pupil's growth in understanding and skill development. A singular or unilateral procedure dealing with a simple and direct test of the learner's ability to *recall* or *repeat* a verbalized concept or idea is not synonymous with evaluation and does not approximate the teacher's responsibility for evaluation of pupil growth and learning.

The NCTE Task Force Study

The overall inadequacy of the traditional preservice preparation program for teachers of culturally disadvantaged children was stressed by the National Council of the Teachers of English Task Force on Teaching English to the Disadvantaged in its study in 1965 (5).

> *For many English teachers a classroom of disadvantaged students is a crucible. In it, otherwise insignificant handicaps are starkly revealed. A gap in preparation, a narrow view of man, a limited tolerance for variety in human nature – any of which might be unnoticed in another setting – not only come to the surface, but virtually guarantee failure. This failure is rooted partly in general education programs that fail to provide a broad view of man, in academic specialization divorced from the demands of the work, in professional training that provides neither the rationale nor the skill needed for teaching disadvantaged children . . . .*

In the NCTE Task Force's comprehensive study of 28 programs stressing the education of teachers of the disadvantaged, the dominant impression was the lack of relevance between teacher preparation in academic and professional competence and the demands of teaching the culturally disadvantaged child. Fully certified and experienced teachers were found to be frustrated, and traditional teaching materials proved ineffective. Supplementary services in the form of classroom aides and additional equipment, though meant to help, provided little assistance. In fact, the teacher frequently was not sure how best to use them.

> *Next to the disadvantaged student, the teachers themselves are possibly the most obvious victims of the current educational plight. They charge, and often rightly, that their prior training did nothing to prepare them for their present assignments: that their training "lacked practical applications," "stressed theoretical abstractions and inappropriate subject matter too much," and "generally failed to face up to the problem adequately." When classroom practice of course content was inappropriate or even*

> *certain to fail, the comments of teachers in informal conversations or formal interview make clear why they were still carrying on. Some were convinced that what they were doing was right and* should *work, and nothing in their education or experience had made clear that it would not. Others, more pathetically, did what they did simply because they did not know what else to do (6).*

While the above seems to point the finger of indictment at teacher preparation programs in English, its relevance to teachers of various subjects at all levels is beyond question. The understanding and acceptance of existing problems appear to be primary requisites for remedial and corrective purposes as well as for developing more adequate and appropriate preparation programs. In the Report of the NCTE Task Force, further explanation was given for the inadequacy of existing teacher preparation and teacher attitudes:

> *The teacher is a product of his own culture, his professional and academic background, his past experience, and the teaching materials he has become accustomed to using. In varying degrees these forces have produced a series of misconceptions which underlie many classroom practices and which seriously impair the effectiveness of any program for disadvantaged youth. There is, for example, a general confusion of "culturally deprived" with "uncultured." Neither general nor professional education sufficiently changes ethnocentric notions which identify "culture" with the culture of the dominant group. Consequently, departure from the dominant norm is often taken to mean an absence of culture or an imperfect or corrupted version of the dominant culture. Similarly, the fact that the disadvantaged frequently fail to succeed in the conventional academic program leads to the mistaken assumption of mental incapacity, or "dullness" . . . .(7).*

These factors, and other false views of the nature of the disadvantaged, lead to serious misconceptions about the learning process and how the human organism learns. These are perpetuated in the classroom of disadvantaged and advantaged alike. For example:

> *. . . the belief that "telling" is teaching; that "induction" or "discovery" is a method of learning appropriate only for "normal" or "advantaged" children; that teaching reading is a responsibility for elementary schools; that instruction in the mechanics of reading must precede reading for enjoyment, for pleasure, for aesthetic growth (8).*

The experience gained in the NDEA Institutes in evaluating preparation for conventional teacher programs and programs needed in classrooms for the disadvantaged sustains the findings of the NCTE Task Force. In the Manual for the Preparation of Proposals for NDEA Institutes, published in 1965 by the U. S. Office of Education, it was stipulated that:

> *Institutes should emphasize the basic understandings, develop the competencies, and study the materials needed for work with young people of diverse cultures. Institutes should include instruction in the psychological and sociological characteristics of disadvantaged and in ways of motivating them to seek further education (9).*

At the conclusion of the section on Teacher Education in the Report of the NCTE Task Force Study, members of the Task Force recommended five objectives to provide direction for teacher preparation programs for disadvantaged children. These objectives seem especially relevant to the preparation of teachers of Mexican American children in culturally mixed classrooms:

(1) To understand the lives and learning styles of children of depressed areas.

(2) To understand the psychological and sociological roots of prejudice and problems within and between ethnic groups.

(3) To develop a positive attitude toward serving in programs for disadvantaged students.

(4) To develop, through study and supervised experience, teaching skills and patterns appropriate for working with disadvantaged children.

(5) To develop new curriculum guides and, sometimes, original teaching materials that reflect not only an awareness of the needs and the special disabilities of disadvantaged children, but that also capitalize on their interests and abilities (10).

In addition, an implied objective was the importance of attitudes held by the teacher in all situations studied. Unless the teacher has a natural, positive, and total commitment to teaching the disadvantaged, he is unlikely to be effective or even to continue teaching in the situation. It was implied that individuals unsuited and undisposed to becoming pupil-learner oriented should not be admitted or retained in such preparation programs.

The conclusions and recommendations of the Task Force study regarding the elementary grades have a direct bearing on the competency pattern of teachers of mixed cultural groups. Following are the major conclusions, accompanied by the Task Force's recommendation for improvements (11):

(1) Conclusion – There was no significant difference in elementary school programs provided for disadvantaged and advanced students.
Recommendation – Where differences (program) exist, the program should reflect the particular educational needs of the disadvantaged student.

(2) Conclusion – Many disadvantaged children entering the first grade are not ready for a formal reading program.
Recommendation – First grade disadvantaged children not ready to enter a formal reading program should be enrolled in an intensive, language-oriented program.

(3) Conclusion – Some children above the first grade, even some who have completed the special language-oriented program recommended above, will have serious difficulties in reading. These problems are unlikely to be solved if the child is placed in a regular classroom situation and receives little individual attention.

Recommendation – Children with serious deficiencies in reading should be placed in a special reading-and-language-centered curriculum taught by teachers especially prepared to teach reading in relation to language development.

(4) Conclusion – Ungraded elementary schools provide flexibility in grouping for instruction and eliminate the experience of failure because a pupil is unable to do the work assigned to a particular grade level. Such flexibility is especially advantageous to pupils with reading and language development problems.
Recommendation – Teachers and administrators should give careful consideration to the questionable effects of the traditional graded school organization.

(5) Conclusion – The socioeconomic environment of the disadvantaged child is a primary conditioner of his educational problems. Any measures that can be taken to extend the school's influence into that environment will help to make the school's program more effective.
Recommendation – Every effort should be made by elementary school personnel to involve the parents in assisting the school with its program.

(6) Conclusion – Many homes offer little or no reading materials to children. Frequently, this lack is not compensated for in the elementary school library due, in the main, to the fact that an estimated two-thirds of all elementary schools have no library of any sort.
Recommendation – Every effort should be made to provide classroom and school libraries for elementary schools in disadvantaged areas.

(7) Conclusion – The importance of oral language programs in elementary schools cannot be overemphasized. Students lacking oral language facility will be severely handicapped in their work in reading and writing.
Recommendation – All elementary schools, but particularly those teaching disadvantaged children, should reevaluate their problems in oral language development.

Teaching a Second Language

Language and communication have been recognized as primary problems in multicultural education. Although Spanish is the native tongue of many Mexican Americans, they speak numerous dialects and often are limited in communication in Spanish as well as English. To aid students in becoming bilingual persons who can participate effectively in two cultures, it is necessary for teachers to be skilled not only in teaching English as a second language but also in teaching Spanish in its proper form.

There has been little research in the subject of teaching a second language. The study of the Task Force on Teaching English to the Disadvantaged, sponsored by the National Council of the Teachers of English in 1965, probably represents the most reliable source of field-tested information available on teaching English as a second language. No similar study regarding Spanish was found in this investigation.

In the Handbook of Research on Teaching, developed in 1963 by the American Educational Research Association, John B. Carroll (12) summarized the research in teaching foreign languages. While Carroll's research had no direct reference to teaching a specific foreign tongue as a second language, some findings and conclusions might be applied to a profile of skills essential to effective teaching in this field.

Carroll's (13) conceptual model of the learning process included five elements: (1) learner's aptitude, (2) learner's general intelligence, (3) learner's perseverance, (4) quality of instruction, and (5) opportunity for learning. According to this model, the requirements for an effective teacher of a foreign language are numerous. Among those included were:

(1) A thorough and accurate knowledge of the traits and characteristics of the individual pupil, including his capacity for learning in general and a foreign language in particular;

(2) An accurate knowledge of the general intelligence level of the student as measured by reliable instruments, with an understanding of the implications of the test results;

(3) An understanding of the role of motivation and the skill to produce sufficient motivation for the learner to make a maximum effort to learn;

(4) A thorough and comprehensive understanding of the principles and procedures involved in the sequential and contextual ordering of learning-task elements;

(5) The knowledge and skill needed to develop opportunities for maximum and optimum learning for each student.

The quality of teaching implied by the model could result in much improvement over the conventional "grammar-translation" method still used by most schools in teaching a foreign language.

Within the past 25 years, there have been significant changes in the methodology of teaching foreign languages. There are several reasons for this. The intensive language programs developed during World War II, the programs of the Army Language Schools in the early 1950's, and the government-sponsored NDEA Language Institutes in the early 1960's brought about some of the changes. In addition, the impact of educational technology and new teaching media, as well as a new found interest in the recognition of the nature and complexity of the learning process, lead to contemporary methods of instruction that are diverse, comprehensive, and sensitive to the multiple factors involved in learning a language.

According to Carroll (14), there is agreement among educators on four aspects of the current methodology of teaching a foreign language:

(1) Elements of the learning tasks are presented and learned in spoken form before they are introduced in written form.

(2) Contemporary teaching methods increasingly are utilizing "the results of scientific analysis of contrasts between the learner's language and the target language due to the fact that the learner's difficulties can be identified and predicted in advance on the basis of this contrastive structure analysis."

(3) Pattern practice-drill techniques are used, with emphasis on repetition of sentence patterns, followed by grammatical description.

(4) The student's native language is minimized and use of the target language increased by use of real-life situations designed to produce recognition and response in the learner.

This process draws heavily on visual props even when the lecture method is used. As soon as the student's progress and achievement permit, opportunities are provided for him to communicate with students who speak the target language. This is known as the "direct" method of teaching and is designed to encourage direct responses in the second language.

In a study of teaching English as a foreign language to primary grade children, Bumpass (15) emphasized the need to proceed in an ordered sequence to bring the learner to progressively higher levels of performance in using the new language. This necessitates observing certain essential principles and developmental stages: (1) mastery of sounds; (2) speaking, involving meaningful practice, drama, games, and songs; (3) reading; and, ultimately, (4) writing.

A review of the skills that characterize effective teaching provides a background for developing a competency pattern of effective teaching of Mexican American children in primary-grade classes with a cultural mix. This pattern reflects the findings and conclusions of the studies reviewed.

Requisite to identifying the competencies required for the effective teacher of Mexican Americans is an identification of the unique needs of the Mexican American child and the aims of the educational program in which the bilingual teacher is to function. The competency pattern presented here has been developed from the research on what constitutes superior teaching, the needs of the Mexican American child, and the purposes and goals of the educational program.

In a democratic society, it is inherent that persons "regardless of race, color, or previous condition of servitude" have equal access to educational opportunity. Although the American commitment to education has been without parallel, it is only recently that long-deferred recognition has been accorded to the contribution of education, not only to the nation's defense and high standard of living, but also to the people of many nationalities and diverse cultures who have come to its shores. While acculturation recently has been proceeding among the Mexican Americans of the Southwest, the Puerto Ricans of New York, the Cajuns of Louisiana, and the Indians of New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Arizona, it has not resulted in complete "Americanization" of the diverse cultures. There are many communities in which individuals have retained their ethnic culture while at the same time becoming active citizens and contributing members to the American culture. The descendents of 18th and 19th century immigrants who have become valuable and dependable components of the American heritage provide evidence to warrant the assumption, as stated by Steglich earlier in this report, that pluralistic rather than assimilationist aims prevail in contemporary American minority group policy. Many American leaders are convinced that in the diversity of cultures, rather than in uniformity, lies much of America's strength and vitality.

The principal purpose of the educational program envisioned here for Mexican American children is to enable the Mexican American minority cultural group to function effectively in either culture without the necessity of rejecting, or being rejected, by either. To achieve this aim, every effort must be made to develop effective, competent, skilled, and dedicated bilingual teachers committed to the task of educating Mexican American children to their maximum potential.

Educational Needs of Mexican American Children

In research and experimentation in teaching the culturally disadvantaged, needs have been defined of the Mexican American preschool and elementary school pupil who lives in the dominant Anglo culture, particularly in the Southwest and Texas, or Tex-Mex, cultural climate. Studies have been conducted by Federally supported NDEA Institutes, Head Start, and other preschool programs; professional organizations, such as the Task Force of the National Council of Teachers of English; and various state and private groups. Although there has been a common belief that the educational needs of the Mexican American child are unique, their needs actually are neither unique nor new. Rather, they represent a concentration of needs that have plagued man throughout civilized history – needs caused by poverty, illiteracy, language handicaps, lack of success in school, lack of belonging, social nonacceptance, and deprivation of opportunities. The concensus of almost all personnel who have participated in programs for the culturally disadvantaged is that the contemporary system of American education, designed to serve children of the middle class, is irrelevant to the culturally disadvantaged Mexican American, precluding self-identification, academic success, or achievement. As a result, the withdrawal and dropout rate of these children perpetuates the cycle of poverty, semi-literacy, educational and social segregation, and cultural conflict.

For purposes of clarification and delineation, the educational needs of the Mexican American child have been grouped into two categories: (1) program (curriculum) needs, and (2) affective needs.

Program (Curriculum) Needs

Educational programs should:

(1) At all grade levels, offer maximum developmental opportunities geared to the subcultural group.

(2) Permit identification with the majority group without rejection of the original culture.

(3) Be designed to remove or alleviate the lack of learning readiness experienced by the culturally disadvantaged at the time of entrance to school.

(4) Stress, at school entrance if not preschool, language and linguistic development basic to self-expression and self-confidence.

(5) Start at the individual level of the culturally deprived child rather than at a preconceived norm of development. Clearly, most of the perceptual tests and other methods used for placement of beginning school pupils are inadequate for culturally disadvantaged children. Whether this is due to overall impoverishment, inability to conceptualize or express themselves, or inability to adjust to or accept a new situation, is a moot question. The proper diagnosis demands further analysis.

(6) Stress individualized learning and achievement programs that would not be characterized by traditional grade theory of either subject matter or of level of progress. The inherent rigidity and inflexibility of such standardized programs constitute a

real barrier to the implementation of an effective educational program.

(7) Recognize the limited experiential background of Mexican Americans and the resulting handicaps to concept development and, consequently, language and reading proficiency. To compensate, the curriculum must provide extensive first hand experiences that would, in effect, build an environmental and experiential pattern enabling such growth to take place.

(8) Emphasize more than intellectual or academic success or failure by including other essential areas of human development such as social adjustment, self-image and self-confidence, human relationships, health and body development, citizenship, and aesthetic development and fulfillment.

In this study, interviews were held with 33 classroom teachers in the Rio Grande Valley. The classrooms were composed of from 50 percent to 100 percent Mexican American pupils. One of the insights gained in the field contacts was the keen sensitivity of the teachers to the affective and personal needs of the Mexican American child.

The importance of the affective or personal-emotional-self needs of learners has emerged slowly but gradually during the past few decades. Understanding and perceptive curriculum planners and teachers are sensitive to this area of human need. This area is particularly important in the education of the culturally disadvantaged, who have been conditioned by a lack of self-identification, belonging, success, and being loved and wanted.

Affective Needs

Educational programs should help Mexican American children:

(1) Develop self-confidence and a positive self-image.

(2) Experience love, affection, and belongingness.

(3) Experience success through working at tasks that present challenge but which can be achieved.

(4) Earn the respect and approbation of their peers through their own achievements and contributions to group goals.

(5) Participate in educational experiences that strengthen self-confidence and self-direction.

(6) Contribute to group goals from their own experiential and unique cultural perspective.

(7) Participate in educational experiences highly individualized and sensitive to their own capabilities without the necessity of conforming to preconceived grade level requirements or performance levels.

(8) Participate in choosing and setting realistic educational and social goals which are not below their capacity to achieve.

(9) Develop concepts and skills which have immediate utility value in their daily living pattern rather than a deferred usefulness in later life.

(10) Receive special help and consideration in learning English and developing expressive

power in the proper use of language.

(11) Be guided and directed in developing their ability to identify and relate to other people.

(12) Experience a systematically planned and implemented language and readiness program designed to aid in overcoming the cumulative deprivations and handicaps of their early years.

(13) Have their educational and developmental potential determined by tests validated and developed on the basis of similar experiential and cultural patterns. When tests which have been validated by children of a majority culture are administered to culturally disadvantaged groups, the results frequently have no validity or reliability because their understandings, interests, and abilities are either underdeveloped or are unrelated to the elements emphasized in the tests.

(14) Be given opportunities in compensatory educational and social experiences and in communication and expressive activities.

(15) Have experiences with a broad variety of materials, audiovisual aids, media, magazines, newspapers, field trips, dramatizations, concerts, community events, musicals, art displays, and other similar activities.

(16) Participate jointly with their parents and other adults in educational, social, and entertainment activities to aid in developing and raising the level of parental interests as well as their educational and social aspirations.

(17) Get special instruction and direction in health education to compensate for deprivations experienced in diet, nutrition, sanitation, and other aspects of inadequate housing and living conditions.

(18) Get special help and assistance in the development of talents in music, art, drama, and other expressive arts in which many culturally deprived children excel.

The Learning Styles of Mexican American and Migrant Children

Among the more significant insights gained in this investigation, both from literature and from field interviews with teachers, were the nature and importance of learning styles of the Mexican American child and their implications for effective teaching and learning. Willard H. Black (16), in an article pertaining to the characteristics of the culturally disadvantaged child, reported the results of studies by Riessman and Metfessel which have relevance to this study. According to Black, the elements and characteristics of their learning styles and school readiness level show that the culturally disadvantaged child:

(1) Is relatively slow at cognitive tasks, but not stupid.

(2) Appears to learn most readily through a physical, concrete approach.

(3) Often appears to be anti-intellectual, pragmatic rather than theoretical.

(4) Is traditional, superstitious, and somewhat religious in a traditional sense.

(5) Is from a male-centered culture, except for a major section of the Negro sub-culture.

(6) Is inflexible and not open to reason about many of his beliefs (such as morality, diet, family polarity, and educational practice).

(7) Feels alienated from the larger social structure, with resultant frustrations.
(8) Holds others to blame for his frustrations.
(9) Appreciates knowledge for its practical and vocational ends but rarely values it for its own sake.
(10) Values masculinity and attendant action, viewing intellectual activities as unmasculine.
(11) Desires a better standard of living, with personal comforts for himself and his family, but does not wish to adopt a middle-class way of life.
(12) Is deficient in auditory attention and interpretation skills.
(13) Reads ineffectively and is deficient in the communication skills; generally has wide areas of ignorance, and often is suggestible, although he may be suspicious of innovations.

From the study by Metfessel, Black reported that culturally disadvantaged children (17):

(1) Tend to learn more readily by inductive than by deductive approaches. It appears reasonable to assume that low self-esteem, induced by long economic deprivations, discrimination, or both, may cause pupils to distrust their own judgment or conclusions; they need the support of an authoritarian person in the classroom. The difficulties in using a discovery technique in teaching disadvantaged pupils is obvious.
(2) Generally are unaccustomed to "insight building" by external use of lectures and discussions at home.
(3) Are frequently symbolically deprived; for example, imaginary playmates are much less acceptable to the parents of culturally disadvantaged children than they are to their middle-class counterparts.
(4) Need to see concrete application of what is learned to immediate sensory and topical satisfaction. The importance of a series of well defined instructional tasks and attendant goals, continued verbalization, and frequent evaluation of progress is implied by this factor.
(5) Tend to have poor attention span and consequently experience difficulty in following the orders of a teacher.

Metfessel (18) also identified certain readiness characteristics for school in general and for instruction in particular of the culturally deprived. He found that the culturally disadvantaged child:

(1) Often is characterized by significant gaps in knowledge and learning.
(2) Generally has had little experience of receiving approval for success in a task.
(3) Is characterized by narrow experience outside the home.
(4) Has very little concept of relative size.

Such need patterns provide a basis upon which the competency and perception pattern of teachers of such pupils can be projected. Combining the profile of superior and effective teachers developed earlier with specific needs of the pupils to be taught, the lists of essential knowledge, perspective, attitudes, and skills stated below constitute the basic competency pattern for effective teaching of Mexican American culturally disadvantaged primary and elementary grade children.

The Competency Pattern of Effective Bilingual Teachers in Culturally Mixed Classrooms

A. Essential Knowledge

There should be comprehensive or functional knowledge of the following:

(1) Historical origin and background, demographic and cultural characteristics, lifeways, social structure, and basic values and aspirations of the Mexican American culture.

(2) Anthropological-sociological aspects of the culture, especially social groups and stratification, societal and behavioral problems, family and child-rearing patterns, and social interaction.

(3) Basic language and an understanding of the dialect(s) by means of which the pupils and the family communicate, together with the fundamental differences, similarities, and structure of both Spanish and English.

(4) Linguistics, psycholinguistics, structural and transformational grammar, and language and cognitive development.

(5) The process of acculturation and an understanding of this process.

(6) Socioeconomic status, educational level, income, and occupational interests of the cultural group.

(7) The highly specialized and differentiated living themes or patterns of the cultural group, such as time orientation, respect for elders, goal orientation, attitude towards competition, and others.

(8) Learning styles and capacity to learn of the Mexican American child and how he has arrived at his present level of perception and literacy.

(9) Processes by which the human organism learns and a functional understanding of how it adapts new behavior.

(10) Function and potential contribution to effective teaching-learning of the new teaching media and various audio-visual aids to instruction.

(11) Motivation and interests and the processes through which their influence may be directed in teaching culturally different learners.

(12) Processes by which the interaction of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil activities are analyzed and interpreted.

(13) Testing, including interpretation, measurement, and evaluation of both educational and social achievement and progress.

(14) Patterns and processes of individual as well as group human growth and development.

(15) Human relations and the skills by which these relationships are implemented in a cultural mix.

B. Perception Pattern

(1) Children of any given culture are molded and conditioned by many factors; their behavior cannot be understood except in terms of their own culture.

(2) Instructional purposes and goals are well-defined and mutually acceptable by teacher and pupil and are based upon the identified needs of the individual.

(3) Pupil behavior is positive when educational goals and classroom activities are meaningful and relevant but negative when the purposes are vague and activities are unrelated to their interests and needs.

(4) Learning is more effective when learners are provided:
  (a) assistance in defining their own goals,
  (b) frequent opportunities to assume responsibility, and
  (c) learning activities that lead to self-discovery.

(5) Both learning and reinforcement occurs more effectively when the usefulness of new knowledges and insights is demonstrated and related to daily living problems and conflicts.

(6) Self-satisfaction and self-actualization are the most rewarding pupil achievements.

(7) Pupils learn and develop best in a situation in which they are respected and believed to be capable and trustworthy.

(8) Pupils are more highly motivated and persistent when the learning activity is in a context and focused on a purpose or goal that is meaningful to them.

(9) Teachers and pupils achieve greater mutual acceptance when:
  (a) emphasis is on the pupil's achievement rather than errors,
  (b) the teacher assists the pupils in understanding and overcoming their daily conflicts and frustrations, and
  (c) pupils recognize that the class activities are important to them.

(10) Teaching and learning are more effective when there is continuous emphasis and effort on removing the barriers to communication between pupil and teacher and between pupil and pupil.

(11) The optimum role of the teacher, as well as the pupil image of him, is that of helper, guide, and counselor, as distinct from one of domination.

(12) Greater progress is made by learners when emphasis is placed on the development of concepts rather than on skills only.

(13) Classroom experiences that are meaningful and relevant contribute to the natural integration of the learner.

(14) Where evaluation is continuous and involves both teacher and pupil, teaching and learning become increasingly more effective, and the teacher becomes more sensitive to the present as well as the developmental needs of pupils.

C. Skill Pattern

Among the major identifying and distinguishing competencies of superior teachers are planning skill and artistry, establishing goals and selecting and organizing appropriate instructional materials, establishing and maintaining optimum teacher-pupil relationships, and implementing and evaluating teaching-learning situations. Such teachers have developed extraordinary skill in making the pupils' classroom experiences meaningful and educative. These skills are complementary to their knowledge and perceptual competencies and constitute a necessary component in effective teaching. Believed essential in effective teaching of culturally disadvantaged classrooms are the following skills in:

(1) Teacher-pupil planning the teaching-learning situation in terms of pupil as well as teacher perspective.
(2) Goal setting through teacher-pupil interaction and cooperation.
(3) Motivating and inspiring learners to work up to their capacity.
(4) Developing a classroom environment and atmosphere conducive to removing cultural differences and cleavage.
(5) Improving human relationships to enable pupils of mixed cultures to live and learn together in security and with mutual acceptance.
(6) Understanding the pupil both as a person and as a learner.
(7) Eliminating feelings of guilt, inferiority, failure, superiority, and aggression.
(8) Objectively evaluating pupil behavior, including both achievement and progress.
(9) Developing a feeling of trust and fairness between teacher and pupils and among pupils.
(10) Helping the pupil to discover and to nurture a sense of achievement and success.
(11) Communicating with each pupil regardless of language barriers, background, educational, or social perspective.
(12) Handling group processes, including the development of group morale, unity, and cohesiveness in multi-cultural classrooms.
(13) Individualizing learning tasks in terms of the pupil's limited or extensive capabilities, perspective, and goals.
(14) Aiding pupils in assuming responsibility and in the achievement of self-direction and self-realization.
(15) Remedial and preventative as well as developmental instruction.
(16) Stimulating and nurturing pupil creativity and expressive communication.
(17) Integrating the learning experiences and enhancing their meaning and educative value to the learner by defining and clarifying, and by illustrating relationships and overlapping.
(18) Establishing and maintaining effective working relationships with parents and patrons.
(19) Establishing a contributory role as a citizen of the community in the solution of its problems.

Summary

The major purpose of this paper was to develop a competency pattern, or profile, of an effective teacher of Mexican American elementary school children in classrooms with a cultural mix.

The competency pattern outlined here was derived from an analysis of the literature pertaining to effective teaching, interviews with teachers in culturally-mixed classrooms, identification of the educational programs' needs and goals, and the special needs of Mexican American children. The pattern of essential knowledge, perceptions, and skills may seem idealistic and unattainable – even impracticable. It should be noted, however, that this was not intended as an arbitrary pattern; rather, it was derived from the above-mentioned considerations in an attempt to provide a basis for effective teaching in educational programs for the Mexican American child.

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(2) Perhaps the best presentation of Mexican American history is Carey McWilliams, *North From Mexico*, especially the first 10 chapters.

(3) Most scholars agree that it is the Spanish language which identifies the group as *La Raza.* Arthur Rubel, *Across the Tracks,* p. 7: ". . . . *La raza* groups together all those in the world who speak Spanish; it implies both a mystical bond uniting Spanish-speaking people and a separation of them from all others." And William Madsen, *Mexican Americans of South Texas,* p. 106: "From the Anglo viewpoint, Spanish is the primary symbol of the 'foreignness' of the Mexican American. For the Latin, Spanish is the primary symbol of loyalty to *La Raza.* The Mexican American who speaks English in a gathering of conservative Latins is mocked and regarded as a traitor to *La Raza.*"

(4) The basic source of information is the special census report, both in 1950 and in 1960, on the Spanish Surname Population. It presents the basic facts about numbers, composition, and socioeconomic characteristics for the five Southwestern states by counties and by major urban places. See U. S. Bureau of the Census. *U. S. Census of Population: 1960. Subject Reports. Persons of Spanish Surnames.* Final Report PC(2)-1B. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1963. An excellent analysis of this report for the five states is the essay by Donald Barrett, "Demographic Characteristics," in Julian Samora, *La Raza: Forgotten Americans,* Chapter 7. A detailed analysis of these data for the state of Texas is found in Harley L. Browning and S. Dale McLemore, *A Statistical Profile of the Spanish-Surname Population of Texas,* Bureau of Business Research, The University of Texas, 1964.

(5) Since birth records are not available for the Mexican American population in any of the states of the Southwest, birth rates can be gauged only by an indirect measure, the child-women ratio (number of children under five years of age per 1,000 women in the child bearing ages). This index suggests that the Mexican American birth rates are approximately twice as high as those of the population in general.

(6) The dependency ratio is the number of non-producers (children under 18 and persons

over 65) divided by the producers and multiplied by 100. The higher the number (the more it approaches 100), the greater the burden on the productive population. All other things equal, taxable wealth which sustains social services is inversely proportional to the size of the dependency ratio.

(7) See Advance Report 8 of the U. C. L. A. Mexican American Study Project, "Mexican Americans in a Midwest Metropolis: A Study of East Chicago," p. v., by Julian Samora and Richard A. Lamanna. Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, University of California, Los Angeles, 1967.

(8) See Table 7C on p. 174 of Donald Barrett's essay, "Demographic Characteristics," in Samora, *La Raza,* for the details of each of the five states.

(9) See W. G. Steglich, "Participation of Migrants in Urban Associations," in *Proceedings of the Southwestern Sociological Association,* 1965, Volume 15, pp. 89-94.

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(34) Rubel, *op. cit.*, p. 139.

(35) *Ibid.*, p. 20.

(36) Sheldon, *op. cit.*, pp. 137-138.

(37) U. C. L. A. Mexican American Study Project, Final Progress Report, No. 10, September, 1967, p. 6.

(38) See Heller, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-16 in which she reported Fernando Penalosa's study of the Mexican American community in Pomona (four layers) and George Barker's study of Tucson (five layers). She also presented the findings of Leonard Broom and Eshrev Shevky, "Mexicans in the United States – A Problem of Social Differentiation," *Sociology and Social Research,* January-February, 1952, Vol. 36, pp. 150-158, which are that no real social differentiation is observed in the Mexican American community. Rubel, *op. cit.*, p. 21, also found no "clearly defined social classes among the *chicanos.* Distinctions between ranked categories are at best tenuous and ill-defined, but such concepts are not totally absent from the *chicanos'* frame of reference." In support of this conclusion he cited the study of Paul Ming-Chan Lin in Kansas City. Madsen, however, concluded that there are five layers in "Mexiquito," paralleling Warner's five classes (lower-lower to elite). Madsen's scheme basically is one which rests on differences in degrees of acculturation, the lower-lower being least acculturated, while the younger elites are almost totally Anglicized.

(39) See Gideon Sjoberg, *The Pre-Industrial City.*

(40) Rubel, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

(41) *Ibid.*, p. 212.

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(46) Sheldon, *op. cit.*, p. 156.

(47) *Ibid.*, p. 135.

(48) Heller, *op. cit.* p. 93.

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(50) Rubel, *op. cit.*, p. 11, quoted a teacher in "Mexiquito" as follows: "We try to get kids' hair cut, get 'em to look like the rest; cut off the *pachuco* style, and the bowl-type haircut. You've been down to Old Mexico where they go around with their shirts unbuttoned all the way down to the navel, and then they tie it around their waist. They think it makes them look sexy. We can't have that here."

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Allen, Edward D., "The Education and Re-Education of Foreign Language Teachers," *Modern Language Journal,* May 1964, Vol. 48, No. 5, pp. 259-261.

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Author concludes that reading instruction has much to learn from linguistics.

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Recommended reading for teacher-training. Authors demonstrate careful research.

Haydon, Charles E., "Aural-Oral Techniques in the Teaching of Foreign Languages," *Hispania*, December, 1956, Vol. 39, No. 4.

The author develops a case for aural-oral learning of the second language in view of the fact that experiments have shown that the child is naturally bilingual between the ages of six to twelve.

Hildreth, Gertrude, "Learning a Second Language in the Elementary Grades and High School," *Modern Language Journal*, March, 1959, Vol. 43, pp. 136-141.

As linguists know, there is no such thing as a "difficult" language for those who learn in early childhood.

Author outlines some questions and problems relating to recent developments in foreign language instruction in the elementary grades and in high school. Article points out children are relatively free of inhibitions, less self-conscious, respond spontaneously without stopping to reflect; they are not conscious of awkwardness, errors, or failure; and they retain new impressions easily.

Young adolescent enjoys new experiences that give him social status; capacity for mimicry is obvious in speech, manner, and attire.

Hill, Archibald A., "Language Analysis and Language Teaching," *Modern Language Journal*, December, 1956, Vol. 40, No. 6, pp. 335-345.

Linguistic scientists, with language teachers, have an important job in unlocking language barriers . . . All that the investigator can tell the teacher about the system of language, and how to exploit it in presentation with benefit in the classroom. All that the teacher can tell the investigator about students' responses, failures, and successes will benefit the investigation of how language works.

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Hocking, Elton, "The Decade Ahead," *The Modern Language Journal*, January, 1946, Vol. 48, No. 1, pp. 3-6.

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Hoge, Henry W., "Visible Pronunciation," *Hispania*, December, 1959, Vol. 42, No. 4.

This article introduces the use of the sound spectrograph in the analysis of Spanish pronunciation and pertinent research.

Howe, Elliot C., "Programs for Bilingual Students of Utah," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November, 1967, pp. 78-81.

The specialist in Foreign Language Education from the Utah State Board of Education spoke of programs in preparation to teach Spanish to native speakers and of the difficulty in finding teachers of English as a second language.

Ives, Sumner, "Linguistics in the Classroom," *College English*, Vol. 17, pp. 165-172.

The author concludes that the major tool which linguists can give to the teacher of composition is a true description of the forms which are used in oral speech for the expression of grammatical meaning. This is an interesting article for those who do not understand why linguists insist on the primacy of speech.

Jacobson, Rudulfo, "The Role of Deep Structures in Language Teaching," *Language Learning*, Vol. 91, Nos. 3 & 4, pp. 153-160.

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Jensen, J. Vernon, "Bilingualism – Effects of Childhood Bilingualism," *Elementary English,* February, 1962, pp. 132-134.

Studies show that the bilingual child should be given some instruction in school in the home language if he is to reach his potential in performance at school.

Keesee, Elizabeth, "Modern Foreign Languages in the Elementary School: Teaching Techniques," Washington, D. C.: U. S. O. E., No. 29, 1960, 65 pp.

Fine tips for teachers by one who has mastered the art.

Kiddle, Lawrence B., "Linguists and Linguistics," *Hispania*, 1953, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp. 14-20.

Suggests that teachers be receptive to ideas of linguists and that linguists give time and thought to the application of their findings to teaching.

Kiddle, Lawrence B., "Introductory Remarks to AATSP Session 1955," *Hispania*, March, 1956, Vol. 39, pp. 24-25.

Author succinctly explains terms used by linguists, especially the concept of the phoneme.

Komadena, Ann, "Teaching Content in a Foreign Language," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November 10-11, 1967, pp. 42-47.

Reports that authorities agree that there is a need for acknowledging necessity for instruction according to cultural as well as to linguistic divergence.

Kreusler, Abraham, "Foreign Languages for Young Children in the USSR," *Elementary School Journal,* May, 1963, Vol. 63, No. 8, pp. 432-440.

Careful reporting of experimental plans begun in certain big cities in the late Forties and early Fifties with elementary students in grade three, in boarding schools, in vocational schools, in special language schools, in kindergarten, and teaching troika. Reports that education authorities favor beginning foreign language study at the preschool level and recognize the need to extend total contact time. Bibliography. Recommended.

Lado, Robert, "A Comparison of the Sound Systems of English and Spanish," *Hispania,* March, 1956, Vol. 39, pp. 26-29.

Dr. Lado speaks with authority on the complexities of the English vowel system in comparison with the Spanish, and highlights major problems with consonantal differences in the two languages.

Lado, Robert, "Linguistic Interpretation of Speech Problems of Foreign Students," *Quarterly Journal of Speech,* 1960, Vol. 46, pp. 171-175.

Description of learning problems faced by students in learning a second language: phonemic, morphophonemic and syntactic. Concludes that the "most useful tool that the teacher could have would be some training in linguistics." A must on reading list for teacher trainees.

Lambert, Wallace E., "A Social Psychology of Bilingualism," *The Journal of Social Issues,* April, 1967.

Valuable article by long-time student of bilingualism.

Lambert, Wallace E., "Psychological Approaches to the Study of Language, Part II: On Second-language Learning and Bilingualism," *Modern Language Journal,* March, 1963, Vol. 47, No. 3, pp. 114-121.

Results of study of ten-year-olds in Montreal showed bilinguals superior to monolinguals on both verbal and non-verbal tests of intelligence.

Larew, Leonor A., "The Optimum Age for Beginning a Foreign Language," *The Modern Language Journal*, May, 1961, Vol. 45, No. 5, pp. 203-206.

The research of the author shows that psychologists and linguists seem to agree that early childhood – that is, between the ages of four and ten – is the best time for second language learning. Author also indicated that seven-year-olds best imitated a native Spanish accent.

Leutenegger, Ralph; Mueller, Theodore H.; and Wershow, Irving R., "Auditory Factors in Foreign Language Acquisition," *Modern Language Journal*, January, 1965, Vol. 49, No. 1, pp. 22-31.

A report of research conducted under a contract with USOE. Scores were obtained for 283 French students and 177 Spanish students. Teachers of these languages – and others – should be interested.

Long, Ralph B., "The Puerto Rican Experience in English as a Second Language," *Reports: TESOL Conference,* Tucson, Arizona, 1964, pp. 27-31.

An account of English teaching in Puerto Rico since 1898. Interesting note is that by 1947 bilingualism was not yet attained in Puerto Rico. Readable presentation of methods and resources in use in 1964.

Lynn, Klonda, "Bilingualism in the Southwest," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 1945, Vol. 31, pp. 175-180.

"Today in the Southwest, the most challenging problem to the educator in general and to the speech teacher in particular is bilingualism."

Malkiel, Yakov, "The Place of Etymology in Linguistic Research," *Bulletin of Hispanic Studies,* April, 1954, Vol. 31, No. 2, pp. 78-90.

This University of California scholar presents an interesting article regarding research of the terminal point of lexicological analysis.

Manuel, H. T., "Bilingualism," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* 1960, pp. 146-150.

Recommended reading. Authoritative report on bilingualism by pioneer in research on this subject in the Southwest.

Marquardt, Wm. F., "Literature and Cross-culture Communication in the Course in English for International Students," Miami, Florida: *The Florida Foreign Language Reporter*, Spring, 1967.

Pertinent information for bilingual teacher education program.

Mathiew, G., "Choral Pattern Drills," *The Modern Language Journal,* May, 1961, Vol. 45, No. 5, pp. 215-216.

Classroom drill and laboratory drills are compared and contrasted by a college teacher of Spanish. Interesting.

Matluck, Joseph H., "Audio Aids and the Teacher," *Hispania*, December, 1959, Vol. 42, No. 4, pp. 555-559.

Major and minor vocalic and consonant errors. Urges use of electronic aids for improvement of the voice by the teacher as well as the student. Worthwhile reading.

Matthews, P. H., reviews N. Chomsky's *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1965, 215 pp. in Reviews, *Journal of Linguistics*, April, 1967, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 119-152.

Concerned with the "psychological" status of generative grammar and the relation of such grammar to actual speech behavior – represents a contribution to psycholinguistics.

Maynes, J. O., Jr., "Bilingual Education in Arizona," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November, 1967, pp. 57-61.

A description of programs in action in Arizona, a description of problems and needs of the program, and mention of research and development going on at the present time.

Mazzara, Richard A., "Another Use of Tape Recordings," *Hispania*, December, 1957, Vol. 40, No. 4, pp. 513-514.

Author from Franklin and Marshall College reports on drills for the perfection of the pronunciation of the /r/ and /rr/, the [c] and [g] in different positions, and a comprehension exercise.

Miller, Frances, "Sequential Patterns of Structure in the English Language Compatible with Written Expressions of Junior High Students," *Journal of Educational Research*, January,

1966, Vol. 59, No. 5, p. 201.

Article explaining the contribution of structural linguistics to the teaching of English as a native language.

Michel, Joseph, "Tentative Guidelines for a Bilingual Curriculum," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* Charles Stubing (ed.), El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November 4-5, 1966, pp. 38-43.

Goals and guidelines presented at a conference on bilingualism. Conclusion states that need for experimentation will be continual, that flexibility is important, that the teacher must be bilingually competent.

Modern Language Journal, March, 1965, Vol. 49, No. 3.

Entire volume devoted to articles on bilingualism.

Moulton, Wm. G., "Applied Linguistics in the Classroom," *PMLA*, May, 1961, Vol. 76, No. 2, pp. 1-6.

A discussion of value of linguistics in classroom procedures.

Muniz, Raul, "Legislation on Bilingual Education," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education*, Chester Christian (ed.), El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November, 1967, pp. 40-41.

An address by a member of the House of Representatives, the State of Texas, in which he urges that foreign language teachers should communicate findings to legislators and otherwise make their voices heard in the statehouses.

McCarthy, Dorothea, "Language Development in Children," *Manual of Child Psychology,* L. Carmichael (ed.); New York: Wiley, 1953.

First study to show relation of socioeconomic status of children to their linguistic development and intelligence.

McGrath, Earl J., "Foreign Languages and World Affairs," *NEA Journal,* October, 1952, Vol. 41, pp. 409-411.

An address in St. Louis in which it was pointed out that the U. S. was lacking in the preparation of young people for world living and which pointed up the neglect of foreign language training in public schools.

Naunheim, Elizabeth, "Spanish in Corpus Christi," *Hispania*, March, 1954, Vol. 37, No. 1, pp. 77-78.

A description of an elementary school program begun in Corpus Christi in September, 1940, to try "to provide a medium by which the Latin- and Anglo-Americans can communicate with each other, particularly in our great Southwest."

Nida, Eugene A., "Motivation in Second Language Learning," *Language Learning*, 1956-57, Vol. 7, Nos. 3 & 4, pp. 11-16.

Author hopes for linguistically oriented psychologists to explore the field of motivation and provide linguists with observations and interpretations.

Nida, Eugene A., "Some Psychological Problems in Second Language Learning," *Language Learning*, 1957-1958, Vol. 8, Nos. 1 & 2, pp. 7-15.

Author's observations from visiting several hundred missionary candidates who have studied elementary linguistics in courses on how to learn a foreign language. Lauds "therapeutic" effect of linguistics, saying that phonemic analysis helps people understand and appreciate the structured character of foreign sounds and helps to break down unconscious prejudices against the "strange" and hence the "incorrect".

Nostrand, Howard Lee, "Describing and Teaching the Sociocultural Context of Foreign Language and Literature," *Trends in Language Teaching,* Albert Valdman (ed.); New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

Explanation of ways of teaching essentials of cultural aspects while teaching a foreign language and the literature of that people.

Nostrand, Howard Lee, "Toward a Bi-Cultural Curriculum," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November 10-11, 1967, pp. 9-22.

A proposal that the best features of the cultures be in contact and that the assimilation of the whole bi-cultural group to the local social system will best serve the Southwest. Valuable bibliography.

Nine, Carmen Judith, "Experiences in Culture Shock," *The Modern Language Journal*, February, 1967, Vol. 51, No. 2, pp. 89-92.

A Puerto Rican teacher of English to freshman at the University of Puerto Rico describes the changes wrought in 60 participants in two institutes – 1964 and 1965 – for teachers of English as a foreign language.

Obrecht, Dean H., "A Visual Aid to Pronunciation," *Language Learning,* 1956-57, Vol. 7, Nos. 3 & 4, pp. 51-55.

Author describes injection of elementary linguistics in the classroom through use of a cross-section of a human head drawn on show-card material with movable articulatory organs.

Paquette, F. Andre, "Undergraduate Modern Foreign Language Teacher-Training in Liberal Arts Colleges: A Survey," *Modern Language Journal,* November, 1964, Vol. 48, No. 7, pp. 424-431.

Report of a study supported by Carnegie Corporation of New York in an effort to determine how to improve teacher preparation and to bring information on current practices up to date. Recommended reading.

Pascual, Henry W., "The Development of Language Skills for Bilinguals – Need for Retooling," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November 4-5, 1966.

The author speaks of the necessity of having well-trained teachers who understand the language problems of bilinguals in order to develop the four skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing in English and in Spanish.

Pascual, Henry W., "Teaching Spanish to Native Speakers of Spanish in New Mexico," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* El Paso: Southwest Conference of Foreign Language Teachers, November, 1967, pp. 70-72.

A succinct report on the need, objectives, and procedures for developing bilinguals in the schools of New Mexico at the present time.

Patterson, William R., and Joyce, Eugenia, "Teaching Reading to the Bilingual Child," *Reading for Today's Children*, September, 1955, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp. 103-106.

Discusses methods of motivating the child and the qualifications necessary for those who teach the bilingual child.

Pena, Albar A., "Teaching Content in the Elementary School," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* Chester Christian (ed.), El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November 10-11, 1967, pp. 45-49.

Refers to Horn materials available from the University of Texas and to the need for planning audio-lingual models according to proven linguistic practices.

Persky, Ruth L., "Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools – Some Thoughts on Teaching Spanish to Elementary School Age Children," *The Modern Language Journal*, November, 1954, Vol. 38, pp. 369-371.

The author considers the "bilingual" period in a child's life to be from (approximately) age six to 11. The child can learn another language naturally at this age.

Pintner, R., "The Influence of Language Background on Intelligence Tests," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 1932, Vol. 3, pp. 235-240.

Early report of three test groups of bilinguals and monolinguals. Bilingualism determined by family name.

Piroch, Goldie, "The Importance of Bilingual Description to Foreign Language Learning," *Language Learning*, 1955, Vol. 6, pp. 51-61.

Notes use of results of structural linguistics in foreign language field.

Politzer, Robert L., "On a Linguistic Classification of Teaching Methods," *Modern Language Journal*, November, 1953, Vol. 37, pp. 331-334.

Article written to bring about some clarification in methodological discussion and serve to point a way to a linguistic analysis of the teaching processes and chief learning processes.

Politzer, Robert L., "Some Reflections on the Use of the Native Language in Elementary Teaching," *Language Learning*, 1958, Vol. 8, Nos. 3 & 4, pp. 49-56.

Valuable reading for the teacher of bilinguals. Advises use of native language when it conserves time for more valuable learning procedures. Also lists manners in which native language can be misused or abused in the classroom.

Politzer, Robert L., "The Impact of Linguistics on Language Teaching: Past, Present and Future," *Modern Language Journal*, March, 1964, Vol. 48, No. 3, pp. 146-151.

Language teaching will be more effective as linguistic research continues. Author reasons that effects of contributions of linguistic science are already evident. Recommended reading.

Puerto Rico University, Superior Educational Council, *La lengua hablada en la escuela elemental*; Rio Riedras: University de Puerto Rico, 1952, 96 pp.

Discussion of common errors of syntax and morphology in Puerto Rican Spanish. These are applicable to Southwestern U. S.

Rackstraw, S. J., and Robinson, W. P., "Social and Psychological Factors Related to Variability of Answering Behavior in Five-Year-Old Children," *Language and Speech*, April-June, 1967, Vol. 10, Part 2, pp. 88-106.

Work done at the Sociological Research Unit, Institute of Education, London, under the direction of Prof. B. B. Bernstein, supported by grants from the Department of Education and Science and the Ford Foundation. It would seem that the environment of middle class children enables their development to be accelerated relative to working class children . . . . An implication of this study to Piaget's developmental stages is that working class children are showing a lag, both conceptually and linguistically.

Ritchie, William, "Some Implications of Generative Grammar for the Construction of Courses in English as a Foreign Language," *Language Learning,* July, 1967, Vol. 17, Nos. 1 & 2, pp. 45-69.

Basis for pattern construction for use in teaching English as a foreign language may be syntactic, semantic, and phonological.

Roberts, Paul, "Linguistics and the Teaching of Composition," *The English Journal*, May, 1963, Vol. 52, No. 5.

The author presents arguments for the use of linguistics in connection with the development of units larger than the sentence.

Roberts, Ruth, "Applications of Reinforcement Learning Theory to Second-Language Learning," *Reports: TESOL Conference,* Tucson, Arizona, 1964, pp. 89-94.

The author speaks of the application of psycholinguistics to the reinforcement of language learning.

Rojas, Pauline, "Field Reports," *Language Learning*, Special Issue, June, 1958, pp. 24-25.

"Teacher trainees do not receive enough linguistic training to enable them to select and arrange materials suitable to the language backgrounds of their pupils, nor even, in most cases, to enable them unaided to devise the situational contexts which are so necessary if practice exercises are to be meaningful to the immature learner."

Rosenbaum, Peter S., "On the Role of Linguistics in the Teaching of English," *Harvard Educational Review,* Summer, 1965, Vol. 35, No. 3, p. 332.

The author concludes that positive evidence is now available that linguistic science has something to contribute to better teaching of English, and educators should respond to the important challenge which linguistics offers.

Sacks, Norman P., "A Study in Spanish Pronunciation Errors," *Hispania*, May, 1962, Vol. 45, No. 2, pp. 289-300.

Recommended reading for analysis and correction of errors in Spanish pronunciation. Major areas of difficulty are pin-pointed.

Sacks, Norman P., "Some Aspects of the Application of Linguistics to the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, January, 1964, Vol. 48, No. 1, pp. 7-17.

Fine article which should be read by all teacher trainees as well as teachers. Revised from a paper presented at the annual meeting of the Kansas Modern Language Association, April 15, 1961.

Saporta, Sol, "A Note on Spanish Semivowels," reprinted from *Language,* 1956, Vol. 32, pp. 287-290.

An article rising from an article by Bowen and Stockwell, "The Phonemic Interpretation," reprinted from *Language,* 1955, Vol. 31, pp. 236-240.

Saporta, Sol, "The Morphemic Systems of English and Spanish," *Hispania*, March, 1956, Vol. 39, pp. 36-40.

Author compares English morphemes and morpheme sequences with those of Spanish, indicating areas where there is likely to be interference, and describes nature of that interference.

Saunders, Duke, "Helping Elementary School Children Learn English as a Second Language – An Inservice Training Program," *Reports: TESOL Conference,* Tucson, Arizona, 1964, pp. 35-36.

Describes inservice training program in Los Angeles which acknowledges unlimited opportunities for experimentation and investigation. Plans for inservice classes in appreciation of contributions of other cultures in fields of art, music, and physical education are to be added to present classes in linguistics and conversational Spanish for teachers of non-English speaking students.

Scholer, Robert J., "Phoneme Categorization of Synthetic Vocalic Stimuli by Speakers of Japanese, Spanish, Persian, and American English," *Language and Speech*, January-March, 1967, Vol. 10, Part I, pp. 46-48.

Assumes inventory of American English syllabic nuclei for Spanish. Experiment in establishment of phoneme patterns, re. two-dimensional displays of phoneme inventories, in typologizing of language on the basis of phoneme patterns.

Scott, Charles T., "Literature and the ESL Program," *Modern Language Journal*, December, 1964, Vol. 48, No. 8, pp. 489-493.

The author quotes reputable linguists in this informative article concerning the problem of teaching English as a second language.

Scott, Charles T., "The Linguistic Basis for the Development of Reading Skill," *The Modern Language Journal*, December, 1966, Vol. 50, No. 8, p. 535.

A discussion of some of the linguistic skills involved in learning to read a foreign language well. The author emphasizes the necessity for sound oral reading drill in the first stage of learning so that the final stage, free reading, may be attained.

Sharp, John M., "Intercultural Problems and the Teacher of English As A Second Language," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education,* Charles Stubing (ed.), El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November, 1966, pp. 50-53.

An excellent report on the necessity of special cultural training in addition to training in linguistics and methodology for the preparation of teachers of bilingual groups.

Shoemaker, Wm. H., "The Respelling Issue," *Hispania,* December, 1957, Vol. 40, No. 4, pp. 461-463.

This is a reply to an article by Dr. Donald J. Bowen and Dr. Robert P. Stockwell in the May, 1957, issue of *Hispania*, Vol. 40. (See Bibliography). Dr. Shoemaker maintains that the elementary course in Spanish should be founded on the aural/oral approach and directed by a teacher of Spanish who is a competent pedagogue as well as a competent linguist.

Singer, Harry, "Bilingualism and Elementary Education," *Modern Language Journal*, December, 1956, Vol. 40, pp. 444-458.

The socio-political conditions under which a person acquires a foreign language will

tend to affect his attitude toward both languages. "Adapting the curriculum to the special requirements of bilingualism tends to facilitate school achievement and to diminish the effects of a language handicap . . . Achievement in both languages . . . correlated with linguistic, mental, educational and emotional factors . . . must be objects of controlled experimentation before differences re optimal age for beginning second language are resolved. The literature on bilingualism is not consistent."

Sledd, James H., "Breaking, Umlaut, and the Southern Drawl," subtitled, "Yet Once More, O Ye Vowels –," *Languages*, January-March, 1966, Vol. 42, No. 1, pp. 18-41.

The author assumes seven pairs of vowels (which he terms tense and lax) and four dipthongs for Southern U. S. speech. Interesting presentation.

Stern, H. H., "Foreign Languages in Primary Education;" Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963.

A report on the international meeting of experts in bilingualism in 1962. Valuable readings concerning all aspects of bilingual education.

Streiff, Marjorie, C., "Remedial English for Students from Spanish-Speaking Homes," *Reports: TESOL Conference,* Tucson, Arizona, 1964, pp. 32-34.

The author considers problems arising from the fact that the student does not read or write his mother tongue.

Stubing, Carl (ed.), "Bilingualism: From the Viewpoint of Recruitment and Preparation of Bilingual Teachers," *Reports: Conference on Bilingualism,* Southwest Conference of Foreign Language Teachers, 1966.

Teacher must understand (1) the nature of language, (2) the nature and kinds of interference from one language to another, (3) thought processes and language acquisition, (4) language and its relation to concept development, (5) phonology, morphology, and syntax, (6) methods and techniques of language instruction, and (7) materials for language instruction, according to this summary.

The English Journal, May, 1963, Vol. 53, No. 5, The High School Organ of the National Council of Teachers of English.

Entire issue is entitled "Linguistics in the Classroom."

"The Ford Foundation Projects in Bilingual Education," Notes and News, *The Modern Language Journal*, April, 1964, Vol. 48, No. 4, pp. 239-241.

Report on Dade County Bilingual Program reprinted from *Florida Foreign Language Reporter.*

The Modern Language Journal, March, 1965, Vol. 49, No. 3, pp. 143-175.

This issue is entitled "Bilingualism and the Bilingual Child – A Symposium." The papers presented were prepared for the Conference for the Teacher of the Bilingual Child held at the University of Texas, June 8-10, 1964.

Tireman, L. S., "The Bilingual Child and His Reading Vocabulary," *Elementary English,* 1955, Vol. 32, pp. 33-35.

If the home environment of the bilingual child provides only meager experiences, the school must compensate by a rich and satisfying program of many experiences to increase his working vocabulary.

Tsuzaki, Stanley Mamoru, "English Influences in the Phonology and Morphology of the Spanish Spoken in the Mexican Colony in Detroit, Michigan," Dissertations Abstracts, Michigan, 1963, Vol. 34, pp. 2,471-2,472.

Similar studies are needed for the Southwestern area.

Twaddell, W. Freeman, "Does the Foreign Language Teacher Have to Teach English Grammar," *PMLA*, May, 1962, Vol. 77, No. 2, pp. 18-22.

Lively discussion precedes one set of conclusions: "Learning about the grammar of a language is not a substitute for, nor a useful preliminary to, learning the language; but it is a legitimate enrichment, an illumination of patterns of linguistic behavior which has been learned." Recommended reading.

Walsh, Donald D., "Too Little and Too Late," *Modern Language Journal*, February, 1965, Vol. 49, No. 2.

The author deplores the lack of a foreign language program in the United States which would begin by grade three and provide a sequence of 10 years' study.

Walsh, Donald D., "The Preparation of Modern Foreign-Language Teachers," *Modern Language Journal,* October, 1964, Vol. 48, No. 6, pp. 352-356.

Results of survey of the academic preparation, teaching experience, teaching load, and present degree of professional involvement of secondary-school teachers of modern foreign language as reported from 33 states and the District of Columbia. Enlightening.

Wardhaugh, Ronald, "Some Current Problems in Second-Language Teaching," *Language Learning*, A Journal of Applied Linguistics, July, 1967, Vol. 17, Nos. 1 & 2, pp. 21-26.

Author concludes that there are still problems which need attention in second-language learning, and that these problems are for the disciplines of the humanities as well as for the linguists to solve.

Weir, Ruth Hirsch, "The Phoneme in Language Teaching," *Language Learning*, Vol. 8, Nos. 3 & 4, pp. 15-20.

Good teaching of pronunciation must be within the phonemic framework. Word of caution: framework of two good phonemic analyses – one for the native language, the other for the target language. "Only in the light of both analyses can be understood the problems in the phonemic patterning which the student will encounter."

Williams, Robert D., "Linguistics and Grammar," *The English Journal*, October, 1959, Vol. 48, No. 7, pp. 388-392.

This former student of C. C. Fries discusses the primacy of spoken language and the application of linguistic principles to the teaching of grammar.

William, Frank M., "New Developments in Modern Languages in the Technological Universities," *Modern Languages*, June, 1966, Vol. 47, pp. 50-54.

Linguistics will be included in the degree plan of schools of technology because it is their belief that the linguist is continually involved in helping others to cross the language barrier.

Woolsey, A. Wallace, "What Are We Doing for the Spanish-Speaking Student?" *Hispania*, Vol. 44, No. 1, pp. 119-123.

A paper read at the 42nd Annual Meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, San Diego, California, December 28-30, 1960, is timely reading. Highly recommended for the bilingual teacher education program.

Zaborowski, Elizabeth K., "Some TESL Guidelines for Training Student Teachers," *Reports: Conference on Bilingual Education*, Charles Stubing (ed.), El Paso: Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November, 1966, pp. 54-56.

Advice from a cooperating teacher of student-teachers of TESL. Excellent article for the reading list of both the trainer and trainee in bilingual teacher education also.

Books

Akhmanova, O. S. and others, translated from the Russian by Hays, David G., and Mohr, Dolores V., *Exact Methods in Linguistic Research*; Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1963, 186 pp.

Chapter II by Professor Akhmanova is valuable reading on the place of semantics in modern linguistics.

Alonso, Amado, Bibliografía de Amado Alonso, *Homenaje de sus discípulos;* Buenos Aires: Coni, 1946, 46 pp.

Excellent articles written in homage to Professor Alonso by some of his former students who have continued their studies in linguistics.

Alonso, Amado, *Castellano, español, idioma nacional, historia espiritual de tres nombres;* Buenos Aires: Editorial Losado, s.a., 1943, 174 pp.

A study of peninsular Spanish and Spanish American Spanish.

Alonso, Amado, *Estudios Linguisticos, temas españoles;* Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 1951, 346 pp.

A study of linguistic concepts, of linguistic geography and phonemic notes written in Spanish for students of Spanish.

Alarco Llorach, Emilio, *Fonología española* (según el método de la escuela Praga); Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 1950, 160 pp.

Spanish phonology written in Spanish.

Anderson, Theodore (ed.), *The Teaching of Modern Languages;* UNESCO, 1955, 295 pp.

Forty outstanding scholars from 18 nations provide worthwhile reading for the language teacher.

Averbach, Erich, *Introduction to Romance Languages and Literatures;* New York: Capricorn Books, 1961.

Deals with linguistic development, the growth and structure of Romance languages as well as with literature.

Baker, Paulline, *Español para los hispanos;* Dallas: Banks Upshaw and Company, 1953, 100 pp.

A teacher of Spanish to bilingual students has written a book to help correct errors common to native speakers.

Balbin Lucas, Rafael de, *Sistema de rítmica Castellana;* Madrid: Gredos, 1962, 357 pp.

A linguistic analysis is made of more than 500 passages of poetry. Scholarly volume written in the Spanish language.

Bar-Hillel, Yehoshua, *Language and Information;* Israel: Jerusalem Academic Press, Ltd., 1964, 388 pp.

Collection of essays written for those interested in mathematical linguistics by author who was first full-time paid research worker in the field of machine translation.

Belasco, Simón, *Anthology*; Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1961, 202 pp.

Collection of articles describing specific applications of linguistics to the classroom. Used as a guide for teachers of foreign languages in NDEA Institutes.

Belasco, Simón, and Cárdenas, Daniel, *Applied Linguistics – Spanish*; Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1961.

Recommended for teacher training program.

Bello, Andrés, *Advertencias sobre el uso de la lengua castellana;* La Plata: Ministerio de Educacíon de la Provincia de Buenos Aires, 1956, 75 pp.

Interesting volume for those who read Spanish.

Benot y Rodríguez, Edwardo, *Diccionario de frases rimadas;* Buenos Aires: Libería "El Ateneo", 1941, 376 pp.

20,000 frases hechas, epítetos obligados, calificaciones comunes, expresiones familiares, fórmulas usuales, frases proverbiales, modismos en español.

Bloch, Bernard, and Trager, George L., *Outline of Linguistic Analysis;* Baltimore: Waverly Press, Inc., 1942, 82 pp.

Outline of basics in linguistic orientation. Also includes practical reading list which is not dated.

Bloomfield, Leonard, and Barnhart, Clarence L., *Let's Read; A Linguistic Approach;* Detroit:

Wayne State University Press, 1961, 465 pp.

Phonetic method. Materials not constructive for bilingual teacher education program.

Bolaño e Isla, Amancio, *Breve manual de fonética elemental;* Mexico: Editorial Porrua, S. A., 1956.

A clear pedagogical exposition that could serve as a basis for the construction of a linguistic map of Mexico. Interesting. Could be included in resource material for teacher training. In Spanish.

Bowen, J. Donald, *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Learning;* Quezón City: Phoenix Publishing House, 1964.

No. 3 in the Monograph Series from the Philippine Center for Language Study. Valuable reference.

Bowen, J. Donald, and Stockwell, Robert P., *Patterns of Spanish Pronunciation: A Drillbook;* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1960.

Linguistically oriented pattern practices for drill in perfecting speech patterns in the Spanish language. Excellent.

Brooks, Nelson, *Language and Language Learning*, 2nd ed.; New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964, 300 pp.

Fine bibliography. Practical how-to section. Essential to education of modern foreign language teachers.

Brown, Roger W., *Words and Things;* Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1958, 398 pp.

Chapter VI, entitled "The Original Word Game", describes part played by linguistic reference in first language learning, pp. 194-228.

Buchanan, Cynthia D., *A Programmed Introduction to Linguistics;* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1963, 137 pp.

Valuable for students of English modern langauges, speech, and linguistics.

Bull, William E., and others, *A Visual Grammar of Spanish;* Los Angeles: University of Los Angeles Press, 1962.

Consists of nearly 500 posters which combine linguistic and pictoral presentation of grammatical principles. Can be used for teaching either Spanish or English concepts. Includes Manual of Instruction. Not limited to use with any particular textbook.

Bull, William E., *Spanish for Teachers: Applied Linguistics;* New York: The Ronald Press, 1965.

Based on contemporary linguistic principles. Intended for use as a textbook by students preparing to teach Spanish.

Bumpass, Faye L., *Teaching Young Students English as a Foreign Language;* New York: American Book Company, 1963, 195 pp. including bibliography.

Description of method of teaching young people English as a new language. Fine detail good for all teachers of foreign language on primary-elementary level. Use for teacher training.

Burgess, Anthony, *Language Made Plain;* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1965.

Primer for amateurs by an amateur according to the author's preface. However, makes good reading, especially in Part Two, "Language in Particular:" Chapter One, "Learning Foreign Languages," and Chapter Five, "Daughters of Latin."

Canfield, Delos Lincoln,*La pronunciación del español en América;* Bogotá: Instituto Caro y Cuervo, 1962, 103 pp.

Valuable linguistical study of Spanish-American Spanish including variations, provincialisms, and linguistic maps.

Cornfield, Ruth R., *Foreign Language Instruction: Dimensions and Horizons;* New York: Appleton Century Croft, 1966, 183 pp.

Information is similar to that presented by Robert Lado, Nelson Brooks, Robert Politzer, and other linguists.

Cárdenas, Daniel N., *Introducción a una comparación fonológica del español y del inglés;* Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Language Research Section, 1960, 68 pp.

Valuable reference for language students and teachers studying both Spanish and English. Problems of pronunciation of Spanish for English-speaking students and solutions to those problems are presented in Spanish.

Cárdenas, Daniel N., and Belasco, Simón, *Spanish: Applied Linguistics;* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1960.

One of the best guides available for linguistics training of classroom teachers in Spanish.

Carrell, James, and Tiffany, Wm. R., *Phonetics: Theory and Application to Speech Improvement;* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1960.

Basic, thoroughly practical manual for speech improvement.

Carroll, John B., *Handbook of Research in Teaching, NEA;* Chicago: Rand McNally Co., 1963, Chapter 21.

In Chapter 21 (pp. 1,060-1,100), "Research on Teaching Foreign Languages," Dr. Carroll speaks of methods of research and the psychology of bilingualism (pp. 1,085-1,087). Fine bibliography.

Carroll, John B., *Words, Meanings, and Concepts, Harvard Educational Review,* Spring, 1964, Vol. 34, No. 2, 24 pp.

Primarily concerned with first language.

Carroll, John B., *Language*; Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1953, 289 pp.

Psychologist at Harvard studies linguistics and related disciplines in America.

Casares y Sánchez, Julio, *Crítica efímera* (divertimientos filológicos); Madrid: Editorial "Saturnino Colleja" s.a., 1918.

Interesting reading in the semantics of Spanish – deals with idioms, errors, and corrections.

Castor Americo y Quesado, *Lengua, enseñanza y literatura:* (esbozos); Madrid: V. Suarez, 1924, 334 pp.

Speaks of linguists Antonio de Nebrija, Hugo Schuchardt, and others and of their studies of the Spanish language, language teaching, and literature. This author is interested in all aspects of Spanish teaching, literature, and history.

Childers, J. Wesley, *Foreign Language Teaching;* New York: Library of Education of the Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1964.

(1) Reviews history of changing status of foreign language teaching in the U. S., (2) highlights principal methods of teaching foreign language today, (3) reviews research in foreign language fields and shows how it has influenced foreign language teaching. Should be included in reading lists for language majors in history of education courses.

Coleman, Algernon, *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching;* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934, 367 pp.

Compiled by the Committee on Modern Foreign Language Teaching, with Dr. Coleman as secretary, under a Carnegie Foundation Grant.

Criado de Val, M., *Síntesis de Morfología Española;* Madrid: CSIC, 1952, 186 pp.

Evolution of Spanish in the modern epoch has not changed the structure of words in as large a proportion as has occurred in other languages, such as French and English. Explains in Spanish various morphological characteristics.

Dale, Alfred G., *A Programming System for Automatic Classification with Applications in Linguistics and Information Retrieval Research;* Austin: Linguistic Research Center at the University of Texas, 1964.

Research prepared for National Science Foundation. Not for applied linguistics.

de Laguna, Grace Mead, *Speech: Its Functions and Development;* Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1963, 362 pp.

Part of studies in the history and theory of linguistics developed by Indiana University.

de Saussure, Ferdinand, *Course in General Linguistics*, translated by Wade Baskin; New York: Philosophical Library, 1959, 232 pp.

The Swiss scholar and professor gave unity and direction to the study of the science of linguistics by focusing attention on the human side of speech. De Saussure is widely respected as the dominant figure among late 19th and early 20th Century linguists. Valuable resource book for beginning students.

Dostert, L. E., and Mueller, H. J., *Suggestions for the Use of Modern Series in Foreign Languages;* Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Co., 1962, 11 pp.

The authors explain the role of linguistics in the preparation of materials in foreign language teaching.

Doyle, Henry G. (ed.), *A Handbook on the Teaching of Spanish and Portuguese;* Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1945, 371 pp.

Fine handbook in its day. Still valuable for bibliographies in chapters entitled "Preparation of Teachers", "Methods of Teaching", and "Teaching Materials."

Dufrenne, Mikel, *Language and Philosophy*, translated by Henry B. Veatch; Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1963, 101 pp.

Chapter I (pp. 20-40), "Language and Linguistics", concerns the correlation of linguistics with other social sciences – anthropology and sociology.

Enciclopedia lingüistica Hispánica and Supplement dirigida por M. Alvar y otros; Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Cientificas, 1960, 646 pp.

A prodigious volume in Spanish with an introduction by Ramón Méndez Pidal and a supplement of 209 pages. It is a history of Spain and of the Spanish language which chronicles its growth from pre-Roman times, and which deals with its antecedents, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Also maps and charts.

Estarellas, Juan, *Spanish Phonological Patterns,* Publications of the Language Institute Language Teaching Series, Vol. I; Hartford, Connecticut: The University of Hartford, 1963.

Valuable reference.

Ferguson, Charles A. (ed.), *Contrastive Structure Series (Spanish and English);* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963.

Two volumes, one on the sound systems, one on the grammatical systems, provide a detailed analysis of the similarities and differences between English and Spanish.

Ferguson, Charles A., and Stewart Wm. A. (ed.), *Linguistic Reading Lists for Teachers of Modern Languages;* Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1963, 114 pp.

Fine language lists, including Spanish, and a general reading list. Annotated.

Ferraro, Frank J., and Sheffman, David, *Basic English for Spanish-speaking People;* New York: Spanish-American Institute, 1958.

A handbook of 40 basic lessons in vocabulary, grammar, reading, letter-writing skills to follow the elementary volume.

Ferraro, Frank J., and Sheffman, David, *Elementary English for Spanish-Speaking People;* New York: Spanish-American Institute, 1959.

Designed as introductory text in American English for native speakers of Spanish, to be used in conjunction with guidance of daily pattern practice and conversation with trained teacher.

Finocchaiaro, Mary, *Teaching English as a Second Language in Elementary and Secondary Schools;* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958, 355 pp.

Volume derived from classroom experiences and supervision. Excellent resource.

Fotich, Tatiana (ed.), *Teaching Foreign Languages in the Modern World;* Washington: The Catholic University of America Press, 1961, 225 pp.

Report on proceedings of the Workshop on the Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Modern World, June 10-21, 1960, at the Catholic University of America.

Francis, W. Nelson, *The Structure of American English;* New York: Ronald Press, 1958.

A study in etymology as well as other aspects of the development of American English.

Friedl, Berthold C., *Problems in Teaching Modern Languages,* Revised edition; Miami: University of Miami, 1960.

First published by the University of Havana in 1947, this book by a pioneer in foreign language teaching is still valuable.

Fries, Charles C., *American English Grammar;* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940.

Grammar of present-day (1940) English with special reference to social differences or class dialects. Still pertinent information.

Fries, Charles C.,(consultant), *An Intensive Course in English*, Revised edition, by the English Language Institute Staff, Robert Lado, director; Ann Arbor.

First published in 1942 as "An Intensive Course in English for Latin-American Students."

Fries, Charles C., *Linguistics and Reading;* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1963, 265 pp.

Valuable presentation of the application of linguistics principles to the teaching of reading.

Fries, Charles C., *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language,* 2nd edition; Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1955, 153 pp.

Scholarly presentation of problems in the teaching of English as a foreign language with some solutions to problems.

Gage, N. L. (ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching, NEA;* Chicago: Rand, McNally Co., 1963, 1,172 pp.

Excellent reference for teacher training courses of special interest to language teachers. (Chapter 21 by John B. Carroll)

García de Diego, Vicente, *Lecciones de lingüistica española (conferencias pronunciadas en el ateneo de Madrid);* Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 1951, 228 pp.

Papers read at a linguistic conference in Madrid and edited by Dr. García de Diego.

Gili y Gaya, Samuel, *Curso superior de sintaxis española,* 8th edition; Barcelona: Spes, 1961, 347 pp.

Valuable discussion of Spanish syntax for those who read Spanish.

Ginzberg, Eli (ed.), *The Nation's Children 1-3: Problems and Prospects;* New York: Columbia University Press, 1960, 238 pp.

Three volumes published in 1960 for the Golden Anniversary of the White House Conference on Children and Youth. Volume III contains a chapter entitled "Spanish-Speaking Children" (pp. 78-102) which speaks of the linguistic difficulty and educational problems of these children. Bibliography.

Gleason, H. A., *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics;* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961, 503 pp.

Considered the handbook of descriptive linguistics in the United States.

Gleason, H. A., *Linguistics and English Grammar;* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965, 519 pp.

Fine resource book for teaching English in secondary schools.

Girsdansky, Michael, *The Adventures of Language;* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1963, 347 pp.

"And How They Snub Us", a good chapter on matter of style and levels of vocabulary, pp. 61-98.

Goldberg, Isaac, *Wonder of Words;* New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1938, 488 pp.

Subtitled "An Introduction to Language for Everyman." This is it.

Haden, Ernest F., *How to Pronounce Spanish;* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953, 39 pp.

Illustrations effectively show position of speech organs necessary for articulation of acceptable sounds in Spanish language. Drills are based upon orderly sequence of phonemic patterns in Spanish.

Hall, Edward T., *The Hidden Dimension;* Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1966.

Implications for teaching of exact cultural patterns are presented with a new theory – proxemics. Interesting contrasts and comparisons of divergent cultures.

Hall, Robert A., Jr., *Linguistics and Your Language;* Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1960, 265 pp.

Second revised edition of *Leave Your Language Alone.* Value to be expected from study of linguistics or related to study of English and other languages.

Hall, Robert A., Jr., *Idealism in Romance Linguistics;* Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1963.

Controversial work, but interesting to students of linguistics and the Spanish language.

Halliday, Michael; Kirkwood, Alexander; McIntosh, Angus; and Stevens, Peter, *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*; Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1965, 322 pp.

Studies in the history and theory of linguistics.

Hammer, John H., and Rice, Frank A., *A Bibliography of Contrastive Linguistics,* Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D. C., 1965.

Valuable resource guide.

Hardie, Elaine; Halton, J. S.; King, P. E.; Mathien, G.; and Pond, K. S., *Sound Language Teaching;* New York: University Publishers Inc., 1961.

This is a handbook for use of the Electronic Laboratory.

Harris, Robert T., and Jarrett, James L., *Language and Informal Logic;* New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1956, 274 pp.

Chapter V (pp. 87-111) "Meaning and Failures of Meaning", for a study of semantics.

Harris, Zellig S., *Structural Linguistics;* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 5th imprinting, 1961, 378 pp.

Author states in Introduction that this book, "presents methods of research used in descriptive or more exactly, structural linguistics." Therefore, this resource is not necessarily reading for bilingual teacher education programs.

Haugen, Einar, *Bilingualism in the Americas; A Guide to Research;* University, Alabama: American Dialect Society, 1957.

American Spanish is discussed and there is a fine bibliography of bilingualism for work done before 1956.

Hemphill, R. J. (ed.), *Background Readings in Language Teaching;* Quezon City: Phoenix Publishing House, 1964.

Number 1 in Monograph Series published by the Philippine Center for Language Study. Valuable readings.

Herdan, Gustav, *The Advanced Theory of Languages as Choice and Chance;* New York: Springer-Verlog New York, Inc., 1966, 459 pp.

Stresses the peculiarity of statistics of language structure as compared to conventional statistics. Not relevant to teacher-counselor educational programs.

Herdan, Gustav, *Quantitative Linguistics;* Washington, D. C.: Butterworth's, 1964, 284 pp.

Great for mathematical linguists, but not necessary for the teacher-counselor educational program. (Volume in a series of mathematical monographs.)

Hodgson, F. M., *Learning Modern Languages;* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1955, 100 pp.

Chapters 1 and 2 are valuable to the teacher of any language, as is Chapter 7, the conclusion. Intervening chapters explained with examples in French. Dr. Hodgson was a lecturer in Modern language at the University of London Institute of Education at the time of this publication.

Hoenigswald, Henry M., *Language Change and Linguistic Reconstruction;* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1960, 168 pp.

Analyzes certain formal properties of language change. Not necessarily for the bilingual teacher educational program.

Huebener, Theodore, *Audio-Visual Techniques in Teaching Foreign Languages;* New York: New York University Press, 1960, 163 pp.

Good explanation of historical background for development of linguistic skills. Illustrative lesson in Spanish may be helpful to students preparing to teach.

Hunt, Kellogg W., *Grammatical Structures Written at Three Grade Levels,* NCTE Research Report No. 3; Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

Valuable resource for teachers.

Huse, H. R., *Reading and Speaking Foreign Language;* Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1945, 128 pp.

Chapter 2, "The Effects of Bilingualism", especially should be included in reading lists for teachers of bilingual students. Chapter 1 discusses Distribution of Linguistic Talent and Linguistic Ability and Immaturity in a readable style.

Jameson, Gloria Ruth, *The Development of a Phonemic Analysis for an Oral English Proficiency Test for Spanish-Speaking School Beginners;* Austin: The University of Texas Press, 1967.

Title describes content. Valuable.

Jespersen, Jens, and Harry, Otto, *How to Teach a Foreign Language;* London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1923.

Translated from the Danish by Sophia Yhlen and Olsen Bertelsen. Advocates reformation in teaching of "living" languages since the purpose of foreign language is to get a way of communication with places which our native tongue cannot reach. Early discussion of bilingual techniques.

Joos, Martin (ed.), *Readings in Linguistics I,* 4th Edition; Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1966.

Collection of 43 monographs valuable to students of linguistics.

Kany, Charles Emil, *American-Spanish Syntax;* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1951, 467 pp.

This volume usually is included in required reading for bilingual education. Notes principal divergences from peninsular Spanish found in Spanish-American Spanish.

Katz, J. J., and Postal, P. M., *An Integrated Theory of Linguistic Descriptions;* Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1964.

Full description of a partitive semantic component.

Keniston, R. Hayward, *Spanish Idiom List;* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929, 108 pp.

Long used as reference and guide by students and teachers of Spanish.

Keniston, R. Hayward, *Spanish Syntax List;* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937, 278 pp.

A statistical study of grammatical usage in Spanish prose on the basis of range and frequency.

Kenyon, John S., and Knott, Thomas A., *A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English;* Springfield, Massachusetts: G. and C. Merriam Company, 1964.

Fine reference.

Lado, Robert, *Language Testing;* London: Longmans, 1962, 389 pp.

Comprehensive introduction to the construction and use of foreign language tests. Linguistic terminology is not always familiar to the average teacher and test maker; testing terminology is not often familiar to the linguist and language teacher. This volume benefits those who need to bridge the gap between test construction and linguistic terminology.

Lado, Robert, *Linguistics Across Cultures;* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1957.

Especially valuable for teachers of English and Spanish.

Lado, Robert, and Fries, Charles C., et al., *An Intensive Course in English,* Four volumes; Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1958.

Volume I, *English Pronunciation,* is based on contrastive analysis of English and Spanish.

Volume II, *Lessons in Vocabulary,* is designed to increase vocabulary and is intended for use with lessons in grammar and pronunciation.

Volume III, *English Sentence Patterns,* contains linguistically oriented lessons carefully arranged for intermediate and advanced students.

Volume IV, *English Pattern Practices,* contains 34 varied lessons to coordinate pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

Lado, Robert, and Fries, Charles C., *English Pattern Practices;* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1960.

Especially designed for teachers of English as a foreign language.

Lado, Robert, et al. (ed.), *Current Trends in Linguistics, Volume 4;* The Hague: Mouton and Co.

The fourth volume of this eight volume series will be devoted to *Ibero-American* and *Carribbean Linguistics.* Norman A. McQuown, University of Chicago; Sol Saporta, University of Washington; and Yolando Loatra, Georgia Tech University, will be assistant editors.

Laird, Charlton, *Thinking About Language;* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964, 75 pp.

A range of interesting topics including idiom and usage, linguistics, and grammar.

Landar, Herbert, *Language and Culture;* New York: Oxford University Press, 1960, 274 pp.

Valuable reading in phonology, morphology, and syntax.

Langle, Ramirez Arturo, *Vocabulario, Apodos, Seudónimos, sobrenombres y hemerografía de la Revolución;* Mexico: Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Mexico, 1966, 151 pp.

Book contains sections devoted to subjects announced by title, including provincialisms and a good bibliography.

Lapesa, Rafael, *Historia de la lengua española;* Madrid: Escelicer, 1942, 358 pp.

This volume presents to the reader, in Spanish, the story of the history and linguistic development of the Spanish language from earliest times. Combines comments on linguistic developments with masterpieces of Spanish literature to illustrate examples of literary style at various stages in the growth of the Spanish language, beginning with the 10th and ending with the 17th Century. Fine for those who read Spanish well. Includes maps and charts.

Lefevre, Carl A., *Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading;* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

Modern linguistic description of speech patterns applies to the problem of teaching writing, as well as to that of reading, using whole-sentence method. Basic knowledge of Trager-Smith desirable.

LePage, R. B., *The National Language Question – Linguistic Problems of Newly Independent States;* New York: Oxford University Press, 1964, 81 pp.

Discussion of language problems as they relate to cultural and economic situations. Concludes that bilingualism, or multilingualism, is eagerly sought in most areas of the world.

MacRae, Margit, *Spanish in the Grades;* New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1959.

Valuable textbook for teacher-training for elementary grades.

McCanne, Roy, *A Modified Test: Approach for Teaching English Reading to Spanish-Speaking Pupils;* Denver, Colo.: Department of Education, Office of Instructional Services, 5 pp.

An aid for teaching bilingually.

McIntosh, Angus, and Halliday, M. A. K., *Patterns of Language* (Papers in General, Descriptive, and Applied Linguistics); London: Longmans, 1966, 199 pp.

Angus McIntosh is a Forbes Professor of English Language at the University of Edinburgh. M. A. K. Halliday is Professor of General Linguistics in the University of London. Collection of 11 papers including general linguistics and its application to language teaching.

Manuel, Herschel T., *Spanish-Speaking Children of the Southwest, Their Education and the Public Welfare;* Austin: The University of Texas Press, 1965.

This book should be basic reference for teachers of bilinguals. Not linguistically oriented.

Malkiel, Yakov, *Hispano-Latin Word Families;* Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1954.

Fine research evidenced in readable presentation.

Mendeloff, Henry, *The Evolution of the Conditional Sentence Contrary to Fact in Old Spanish;* Washington: Catholic University of America Press, 1960, 106 pp.

Interesting reading for those interested in Spanish syntax.

Menéndez Pidal, Ramón, *El idioma español en sus primeros tiempos;* Buenos Aires-Mexico: Espasa-Calpe Argentina, s.a., 1942.

History of early Spanish for those interested in etymology.

Menéndez Pidal, Ramón, *Mis paginas preferidas; estudios linguisticos historicos;* Madrid: Gredos, 1957, 326 pp.

This book is composed of articles selected by Menéndez Pidal from his own writings in linguistic and historical studies of the Spanish language.

Maelstrom, Jean, and Ashley, Annabel, *Dialects – U. S. A.;* Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1958, 59 pp.

This small volume is valuable for teachers of English as a first or second language. It includes a list of literary selections illustrating American dialects.

Malmberg, Bertil, *New Trends in Linguistics;* Stockholm: Lund, 1963.

The author reports on the history of the Castilian language from the 11th Century and mentions Spanish linguists to the present day in an interesting section entitled "The Spanish School", p. 65.

Malmberg, Bertil, *Structural Linguistics and Human Communication;* New York: Academic Press Inc., 1963, 192 pp.

By author's own statement in preface, this book is not intended as an elementary handbook. Readers should be advanced students in linguistics.

Meras, Edmond A., *A Language Teacher's Guide;* New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1962.

Note Chapter 8, "Teaching Pronunciation", and Chapter 9, "Teaching Vocabulary", both valuable.

Mitchell, T. F., *On the Nature of Linguistics and Its Place in University Studies;* Leeds: Leeds University Press, 1965, 28 pp.

An Inaugural Lecture in which the importance of a continued study in Linguistics is stressed.

Navarro Tomás, Tomás, *Cuestionario lingüístico hispano-americano;* Buenos Aires: Coni, 1945.

This volume deals with the questions of phonetics, morphology, and syntactic structure of the Spanish language in Spanish America.

Navarro Tomás, Tomás, *Estudios de fonología española;* Syracuse, N. Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1946, 217 pp.

Fine study in Spanish by one of its best authorities.

Navarro Tomás, Tomás, *Manual de entonación española;* New York: Hispanic Institute, 1944.

Handbook for students of the Spanish language. Deals principally with questions of intonation and juncture.

Navarro Tomás, Tomás, *Manual de Pronunciación Española,* 6th edition; Madrid: Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas Instituto, "Miguel de Cervantes", 1950, 326 pp.

Handbook for students of the Spanish language. Presents phonemic variations.

Nance, Afton Dill, *Teaching English as a Second Language to Elementary School Pupils;* Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1962, 7 pp.

Agency publication. Author involved in developing elementary program.

Nostrand, Howard Lee, *Research on Language Teaching, 1945-1964;* Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1965, 373 pp.

An annotated international bibliography.

Ogden, C. K., *Basic English*, 6th edition; London: K. Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co. Ltd., 1938, 184 pp.

A limited vocabulary (850 words) selected to form an international auxiliary language for all who do not already speak English. 'Verbs' and 'nouns' as categories are discarded in favor of 'operations', 'things', and 'qualities'. These words, constantly used by the American or English child of six, it is claimed, cover the needs of everyday life for which 20,000 words ordinarily are used. Interesting.

Ogden, C. K., *The Meaning of Meaning;* New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1956, 363 pp.

Scholarly research is much in evidence.

Ohannessian, Sirapri, *Interim Bibliography in the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages;* Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1960.

A bibliography compiled for teachers of English as a second language.

Ott, Elizabeth H., *A Study of Levels of Fluency and Proficiency in Oral English of Spanish-Speaking School Beginners;* Austin: The University of Texas, 1967.

Valuable for students of bilingual education.

Parker, William R., *The National Interest and Foreign Languages,* 3rd edition, Department of State Publication 7324; Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962, 159 pp.

Discussion guide prepared for UNESCO.

Pederson, Holger, *The Discovery of Language,* translated by John Webster Spargo; Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1962.

A description of the state of linguistics in the 19th and early 20th Centuries.

Penfield, Wilder, *Speech and Brain Mechanisms;* Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1959.

The author believes that children learn second languages more easily up to 10 years of age.

Picón-Salas, Mariano, *A Cultural History of Spanish America,* translated by Irving A. Leonard;

Berkeley: University of California Press, 1962.

A history of Spanish America during its colonial period, the 16th to the 18th Century. An analysis of the hispanic and mestizo roots of modern Spanish America.

Politzer, Robert L., *Foreign Language Learning: A Linguistic Introduction;* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.

A discussion of how to *learn* a foreign language.

Politzer, Robert L., and Staubach, Charles, *Teaching Spanish: A Linguistic Orientation;* New York: Ginn and Company, 1961.

Aims to develop awareness of pattern conflicts between Spanish and English and presents remedies which, according to the authors, a "linguistic" teaching method could offer.

Post, Anita Calneh, *Southern Arizona Spanish Phonology;* Tucson: University of Arizona, 1934.

Older study of provincialisms and phonology of the Spanish of the Southwest.

Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles, *Linguistics: A Revolution in Teaching;* New York: Delacourt Press, 1966.

Interesting reading of changes wrought in language teaching by science of linguistics.

Quilter, Daniel, *Do's and Don'ts of Audio-Lingual Teaching;* Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1967.

Rules and suggestions for improving effectiveness of presentation on the beginning and intermediate levels.

Ramsey, Marathon Montrose (Revised by Robert K. Spaulding), *A Textbook of Modern Spanish;* New York: Holt, 1956.

Grammar for reference of correct usage.

Reeves, Ruth (chairman), *Ideas for Teaching English,* Grades 7, 8, 9; Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966, 422 pp.

Indispensable handbook for the English teacher. Practices of successful teachers have been carefully selected and presented to help solve problems pertinent to first (or second) language learning.

Reyburn, William D., *Problems and Procedures in Ethnolinguistic Survey;* New York: American Bible Society, 1956.

An outline based on a pilot study in a multilingual area.

Rice, Frank, and Guss, Allene, *Information Sources in Linguistics;* Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1965, 42 pp.

Should be available to every teacher and student of languages for quick reference to reliable information.

Rivers, Wilga M., *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher;* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.

Chapter 4, "Some Viewpoints on What Language Is", and Chapter 5, which deals with the process of habit formation, may be two of the more valuable chapters.

Roberts, Paul, *English Syntax: A Programmed Introduction to Transformational Grammar;* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1964, 430 pp.

Covers a large part of English syntax in readable style. No index.

Robinett, Ralph F., *A Linguistic Approach to Beginning Reading for Bilingual Children;* Miami, Florida: Dade County Public Schools, May, 1965.

Reading lists recommended for teachers of bilingual students.

Robins, R. H., *General Linguistics: An Introductory Survey;* Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1964.

Readable. Excellent explanation of linguistic vocabulary; extensive bibliographies.

Rodriguez, Bou Ismael, *A Study of the Parallelism of English and Spanish Vocabularies,* Superior Education Council of Puerto Rico; Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico: University of Puerto Rico, 1950.

Valuable references. Contains samples of Inter-American Test of Language in appendix.

Rosenblat, Angel, *El castellano de España y el castellano de América; Unidad y deferenciacion,* 2nd edition; Caracas: Universidad Central de Venezuela, Facultad de Humanidades y Educacion, 1965, 61 pp.

This small volume presents an interesting discussion of provincialisms.

Salomon, Louis B., *Semantics and Common Sense;* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966.

Preface is a delightful introduction to the discipline of semantics.

Santamaria Chavarria, Andres, *Diccionario de incorrecciones de lenguaje;* Madrid: Ediciones CYS, Paraninfo, 1956, 312 pp.

Interesting reading for students of Spanish language.

Santamaria, Francisco Javier, *Diccionario de Mejicanismos;* Mejico: Editorial Porrua, 1959, 1,197 pp.

Authoritative list of expressions common in Mexico.

Serís, Homero, *Bibliografía de la lingüística española;* Bogota: Instituto Caro y Cuervo, (Publicaciones, 19), 1964, 981 pp.

Monumental study. Valuable for graduate study or to the researcher. Not a complete bibliography, although parts are annotated.

Sizemore, Mamie, *Teaching Reading to the Bilingual Child;* Arizona State Department of Education, 1963.

The author covers the reading problem from the primary to the upper elementary grades.

Spaulding, R. K., *How Spanish Grew;* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1943.

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A fine handbook for language teachers.

Warfel, Harry R., *Language, A Science of Human Behavior;* Cleveland: Howard Allen, Inc., 1962.

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APPENDIX A

List of Interviewees

Eduardo Barrera, Assistant Professor of Foreign Language, Pan American College, Edinburg
Dean R. Burks, Coordinator of Instruction, McAllen
Ramiro Corona, science teacher, Edinburg
Betty Joan Davenport, 1st grade teacher, Edinburg
Gladys Dollins, teacher, Edinburg
Esther Esparza, 1st grade teacher, McAllen
Inez Fagala, 1st grade teacher, McAllen
Elva Gonzales, 6th grade teacher, McAllen
Tina Gonzales, 2nd grade teacher, McAllen
Helen Greene, 4th grade teacher, McAllen
Enedina Guerra, Director of Developmental Language and Reading, Edinburg
Eduardo J. Hinojosa, Jr. High school teacher, Edinburg
Nancy Kruger, art student teacher, Mission
Olivia Lopez, beginner teacher, Edinburg
Cynthia Love, beginner teacher, McAllen
Elisa Lozano, 2nd grade teacher, McAllen
Socorro Lujan, 5th grade math teacher, McAllen
Zoila Martinez, 2nd grade teacher, McAllen
Irene Morgan, pre-school teacher, Hidalgo
Jeanette Nowling, 6th, 7th, and 8th grade teacher, Pharr
Patricia Olson, 3rd grade teacher, McAllen
Elizabeth Patton, 3rd grade teacher, McAllen
Mary Pennington, 6th, 7th, and 8th grade reading and social studies teacher, McAllen
Eustalia Perez, Director of Migrant Curriculum, Edinburg
Lillian Pratt, 7th grade language arts teacher, McAllen
Kate A. Richards, 3rd grade teacher, Edinburg
Eutiquio Rivas, Assistant Principal, Mission
Eloy Salazar, 7th grade teacher, Donna
Thomas E. Simmons, Assistant Professor of Education, Pan American College, Edinburg
Linda Skow, 5th grade English teacher, McAllen
Mollie Thomas, 6th grade reading and English teacher, McAllen
Melanie Trevino, 6th grade teacher, McAllen
Graciela Vallejo, 1st grade teacher, McAllen
Emma B. Vela, beginner teacher, Edinburg
Mary Wilder, 4th grade teacher, McAllen

APPENDIX B

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Dr. James Foster
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Department of Education
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Dr. Morris S. Wallace, Professor of
Education and Program Director, MATCEP
School of Education

Dr. Holmes Webb, Chairman
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School of Education

Dr. Olive Wheeler
Department of Elementary Education
School of Education

APPENDIX C

EXECUTIVE ADVISORY COMMITTEE

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